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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

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THE FARM FORUM

Mon. April 1, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Livestock Meeting No. 27: Hog Pastures.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- If the best hog caller here will just step to the door and call in those men on the outside, we can begin at once. We have another Department of Agriculture man here today. He has a few words to say about hog pasture. I've told him that in these meetings we are accustomed to breaking in on speakers, whenever we want to clear up any point. That's all right with him. He says help yourself ---------

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Experiments have shown that on the very best pastures, pigs gain a little, even without any grain. But that doesn't pay. Neither does it pay to have so many hogs in a pasture that they keep it down almost to the ground.

Trying to grow hogs on pasture with too little grain or without any grain is overworking pastures. So is putting so many hogs on a pasture that it is grazed too closely.

However, hog pastures are valuable. They are almost a necessity. Every hog grower who can will profit by providing good pasture for his hogs.

Pasture crops allowed to mature don't make good feed for hogs. Good hog pastures are tender and succulent ------(As if interrupted) Just a moment, the gentleman over here has a question ------ "How many?"

He wants to know how many hogs should be pastured to an acre of land--- I can't tell him that. Of course, that depends on the pasture and on the soil and on climatic conditions.

Ordinarily, an acre of land will furnish pasture for from 5 to 15 hundred-pound hogs. In some cases, good pasture will carry more than that.

If it can be done, it is a good plan to have two pasture lots and let the hogs stay in one lot two or three weeks and then change to the other, while the first one gets a chance to grow some more. That plan works especially well in irrigated districts.

A big proportion of our successful hog raisers use permanent pastures of some kind. But they don't use a small lot for a permanent pasture for a large number of hogs. If you keep a considerable number of hogs confined in a rather small lot, better provide some kind of temporary pasture. That will let you plow once or twice a year to help keep down troubles from parasites and produce a bigger tonnage than you can with most permanent pasture grasses.

You know, if a pasture is used for any great length of time, even if it is big, it will become more or less infested with parasites. For that reason, if for no other, when you use permanent pastures, better plow them up every three or four years and make a new pasture in some other field.

If you put a limited number of hogs on permanent pasture, they can get plenty of grass and you can get a crop or two of hay. ----(As if interrupted) -----What say? ---"What grasses are best?"

Why, alfalfa is undoubtedly the best of all permanent pasture grasses for hogs. Red clover comes next. Alsike, white clover, and bluegrass, and bur clover, and Bermuda grass, and lespedeza, and carpet grass, and crab grass, and Dallis grass are all commonly used in different parts of the country. Bluegrass and white clover are generally grown together. Timothy is often seeded with red clover.

I suppose every hog farmer here also uses temporary pastures. Anyway, you should. You can make them in the smaller lots. They are handy for sows and litters of pigs, and for small bunches of hogs to be fed, especially dry sows, boars, and the like. Lots used for temporary pastures can be plowed and seeded at least once a year, and in many cases twice a year. That helps keep the premises clean, and sanitary and free from parasites. The temporary pastures are usually well fertilized and produce good crops.

The fertilizer value of pasturing hogs is something you should never overlook. Hogs on pasture range all over the field, and so there is an even distribution of the manure.

Another thing to remember, is the value of pastures for breeding animals. In order to make the proper development, breeding hogs need plenty of exercise and a variety of feeds, and good pasture is one of the most valuable feeds in furnishing variety. -------(As if interrupted) What's that?----- Why I mentioned the grasses ----- Oh, you mean for temporary pastures? ----

Well, the most commonly used temporary pastures are rye, and oats, and rape, and soy beans, and cowpeas. Sweet clover is also quite commonly used.

Rye is sown from the last of August to December, depending on the part of the country, and pastured during the fall and winter. Then the rye can be grazed again in the spring until the plants get too mature. Then you can plow it under and seed the same ground to rape or soy beans or cowpeas. In some localities winter wheat does as well or better than rye. In the Southern States winter oats provide good fall, winter, and spring pasture.

In the North, oats is sometimes seeded in the spring. It makes a good pasture while it lasts, but it doesn't last long.

On good ground, rape produces a lot of forage. It does well in barn lots and on the richer soils. The Dwarf Essex is the variety to grow. When the plants are 6 to 8 inches high, you can turn the hogs in on it. When they have eaten it down, take them out, and another crop will soon be produced and ready for pasturing.

As for soy beans and cowpeas, you can sow them by themselves or together in the spring. With good rainfall and good soil, very satisfactory results may be expected from soy beans and cowpeas.

In recent years, however, sweet clover has come into favor as a good hog pasture. On good soils, it is a big producer. It grows fast. To keep the plants tender, you should pasture sweet clover heavily. If you don't have enough hogs to do that, you'll have to keep it cut back with the mowing machine. You can pasture sweet clover for two years from a single seeding.

But whatever you use temporary or permanent pasture, and whatever their size, pastures for hogs should be well fenced. Time and money spent on hog-tight fences are time and money well spent.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow at this time we will talk about the cooperative marketing of eggs. Wednesday we will have a discussion on how to fight peach yellows. Thursday we will find out how to prevent weed flavors in milk.

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THE FARM FORUM Tues. April 2, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Poultry Meeting No. 27: Cooperative Marketing of Eggs.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --We have with us today a market specialist from the U.S. Department of Agriculture. He is an egg marketing specialist. He is going to talk to us about cooperative marketing of eggs. By going in together that way poultrymen are able to cut the costs of marketing ----- Isn't that the idea, Mr. Expert? -----

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Well, Mr. Chairman, you are right as far as you go.

But cooperative associations are not organized simply to cut costs. Cooperative egg marketing associations are organized to give their members efficient marketing service.

That means they are organized to do everything which will help make the producer prosperous.

For instance, when it is plain that further expansion of the egg business will bring down prices, it is up to the co-op to discourage expansion. Then too, the association should keep its members informed about improved production practices and about changes in the market demand. It should help the member meet those changes. It should furnish market information which will help producers take advantage of seasonal prices, and should keep them informed about what the markets prefer.

In other words, a co-op should help its members produce and market what the consumers want. Not only that, but the association should go further and try to increase consumer demand. Those are the things many successful egg and poultry associations are doing today.

We now have cooperative egg and poultry associations scattered all through the United States. There are about 75 of them, doing a combined business of around 5,000,000 cases of eggs a year. ------- (As if interrupted) ------ What's that? ----- You want to know, if the western associations are not the most successful? ---

Well, the West Coast associations are generally regarded as successful ---- by egg farmers in other sections of the country. But what is successful in one section may not work so well in another. Some producers in other sections have come to grief because of being too much influenced by that feeling that West Coast associations represent the best type known. --------(As if interrupted) "What's the difference," You ask?

Each section has its own conditions and problems. Now, the West Coast associations are so far away form market, their chief problem perhaps is delivering their eggs. It is undertaking a good bit to ship eggs of a given quality over a long distance, and then deliver them so that, on inspection at their distination, the quality will not have changed materially.

Another problem of West Coast co-ops is that of preventing competition among themselves. The Pacific Egg Producers, which is the sales organization of the leading West Coast associations, has partly solved that problem as far as the eastern markets are concerned. But the problem is still unsolved in the western markets.

You know, there are three main types of egg associations. There are those organized to move the local surplus to far-off markets. The western associations are mostly of that type. The Washington Cooperative Egg and Poultry Association is an example of that type. That association handled over $18,000,000 worth of eggs in 1927.

Then there is the overhead organization, such as the Pacific Egg Producers, which we mentioned before. That is maintained by four West Coast associations for the sale of eggs in eastern markets. In 1927, that federation of associations sold nearly a million and a quarter cases worth $14,000,000.

On the West Coast a large volume if necessary. It costs too much to ship eggs all the way to the East in less than car lots.

You can see how the problems of such an association are different from those of an association located near market. To an association located near market, high quality is more important than big volume. Of course, there has to be volume enough to run economically. But selection of members according to the type and quality of eggs they produce may be the big thing in bringing sucess.

Southern producers, in the past, have sold eggs of poor quality because it is hotter in the South and eggs are harder to keep. Then some of the trouble has also been due to unsatisfactory feeds. For that reason cooperative effort in the South has usually been

directed toward improving quality, by getting the eggs to market faster. Most Southern eggs are sold locally, however. They are not important in the big egg markets.

Any association marketing eggs locally has its problems. Local eggs are fresher. For that reason, they are usually of higher quality than those shipped in from the far-off sections. The problem of such an association is to market the eggs so as to have them retain their identity, in order that consumers will pay for the fresh eggs the premium which they deserve because of their superior quality.

A good example of the association which markets eggs locally, is the Connecticut Poultry Producers, at New Haven, Connecticut. That association puts the emphasis on building up a local market for their exceptionally high quality eggs. Each egg is stamped with a brand name and sold in a special carton to local retailers. Last year the Connecticut Poultry Producers handled 27,000 cases of eggs that way.

Yes, egg and poultry associations are service organizations. They are set up on the fundamental business principle of helping the producer understand and supply his market. They furnish producers a permanent market all the year around. Many of them undertake to supply their members with supplies at cost. They are always looking for newer and better ways to produce eggs and market them. They are keeping the poultry business on a money-making basis. And, at the same time, they are sending better eggs to the consumer.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will discuss a few peach diseases, especially peach yellows. Thursday, we will take up the question of preventing weed flavors in milk. And Friday our Farm Engineer will be with us again.

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THE FARM FORUM Wednesday, April 3, 1929.

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 27: Peach Yellows

ANNOUNCEMENT: Come to order! ---- The Farm Forum will be in order! As you all know, peach trees have their troubles which make trouble for the peach grower. Today a man from the U. S. Department of Agriculture is here to tell us about some of those troubles. It seems strange the way peach trees do sometime ----------

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Let's consider the Peach Yellows mystery.

I guess you all know about peach yellows. The symptoms of this disease suddenly appear on a few trees in an orchard; a vigorous young, peach orchard.

A colony of "yellows" trees may show up the next summer around the tree which first showed the disease, if it is not rooted out. Occasionally a single tree may show yellows at a distance from the group of diseased trees. Those single trees, in their turn, become centers of infection. In a few years, the colonies spread until the entire orchard is worthless and has to be destroyed.

In the meantime, a near-by or distant orchard is taken with the yellows too. In the early eighties, peach orchards of the Delaware Chesapeake peninsular shipped seven million baskets of peaches in a season. Then came the yellows. Peaches in the Delaware-Chesapeake peninsular were practically wiped out.

While peaches were going out in that section, an extensive peach growing industry sprang up along the Blue Ridge Mountains of Maryland and southern Pennsylvania. Then, in the nineties, came the yellows. Another peach region was nearly wiped out.

In the Michigan peach belt, there's something of the same story. Came the yellows. And several counties have been cleared of peaches. ----- (As if interrupted) What do you say? -------"What causes it?"

I wish we knew! --- It is clearly infectious. But with all our high-power microscopes we have never yet found the bug or bacterium or whatnot that causes it.

Some folks have thought it might be due to trouble with the tree's food supply. The trees certainly look as though they were starved. But they look just as much that way and die just as fast on rich soils as they do on poor soils. Fertilize them as you will, the yellows goes right along.

We do know the disease can be transmitted by budding or grafting. Yes, and the budded or grafted trees can be moved hundreds of miles. Or you can take the diseased buds from one part of the country to the other, and when the diseased bud is pushed into growth on a healthy tree, that heretofore-healthy tree takes the yellows.

Peach yellows is evidently one of those diseases we call "virus diseases". Some virus diseases, such as tobacco mosaic,can be transmitted by merely rubbing a diseased leaf with the fingers and then rubbing a healthy plant. In a number of cases, however, "virus diseases" are known to be carried by insects. There may be an insect carrying yellows, but we haven't found it yet.

Now in the case of peach rosette in Georgia, and South Carolina, westward to Arkansas, Missouri and Kansas, you have a disease much like yellows, but we know that peach rosette occurs on the wild plum in Georgia. The peaches probably got the disease from the wild plum.

Another similar disease is Little Peach, common in Michigan, New York, southern New England to New Jersey and Delaware. In yellows, the peaches ripen prematurely, but in Little Peach, the fruits are later in ripening than normal. However, both are controlled the same way -------- (As if interrupted) What? ---"How's that?"

Why, inspect the orchard row by row and tree by tree two or three times during the growing season. Find every diseased tree and root it out. Better burn it on the spot. Make the first inspection when the earliest peaches are ripening. Make the second, when the midseason peaches are ripening, and the third just before the ripening of the late peaches and frost. Do that every year. The idea is to destroy a few diseased trees for the sake of the rest of the orchard. The diseased tree has no future, but serves as a center of infection.

If you do that, you can usually cut your losses down to less than one per cent a year. The only reason that method is not 100 per cent perfect is because some cases don't show the symptoms promptly.

Another trouble in neglected orchards comes from yellow, sickly trees, due to other causes. Borers, fungus root rot, and other root disease, crown gall, root winter killing, and root drowning, and black peach aphis, and lime chlorosis, and several other causes sometime produce yellow foliage. In practice, it is best either to cure the trees of those other troubles promptly or else root out the doubtful tree. When in doubt, root them out. ----------(As if interrupted) Yes? ---- Yes, I see --- You want to know the exact symptoms of yellows?

Well, when the fruit is on the tree, the first symptom you notice is the red spotting and red flecking and premature ripening of the peaches.

Then the leaves begin to turn yellow and droop a little and turn up from the midrib. Even the first year, they show the symptoms they sometimes get so yellow and sickly you can spot the yellow trees from far off. Thats where they probably got that name of "peach yellows."

Along with that drooping of the foliage there are pale, slender, wiry sprouts pushing out on the main limbs and branches.

The second year, if the yellows tree is not rooted out before that, it shows the symptoms earlier in the season and they are more pronounced.

The third year, the twigs and branches begin to die back; the trees produce little or no fruit. By that time, anybody can see that the peach tree is in a dying condition. It may die the fourth year or it may hold out until the fifth year and die completely, root and branch. It pays to root out the yellows trees promptly, so as to save the other trees from infection.

The phony disease of peaches in Georgia ruins an orchard much the same way as yellows, but it doesn't make the trees yellow or sickly looking, though communicable from the root it does not spread around individual trees in colonies as does yellows.

This is a rather new disease however, and the most promising control system is to root out the diseased trees as in the case of yellows.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow our dairymen are going to discuss weed flavors in milk and how to prevent them. Friday our Farm Engineer will be with us, and then don't forget next Monday we will have a big marketing meeting of especial interest to livestock raisers.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 1,2,4,and 5) Thurs., April 4, 1929

Dairy Meeting No. 27b: Weed Flavors in Milk

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- Wild onions are enough to make any milkman wild, but you will have to come to order! -- We have a specialist here. He's from the U.S. Department of Agriculture. If you dairymen will come to order, he may tell you how to get around that garlic in the milk.

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I understand that you dairymen around here are giving considerable attention to losses from sour milk, and how to prevent them.

I'm glad to hear that. It pays.

But remember that off-flavor milk is causing just as big losses as sour milk.

Milk with a disagreeable flavor is rejected by dealers and consumers.

One of the biggest causes of off-flavors and odors in milk is weeds, especially during the pasture season. And one of the worst weeds is garlic or wild onion. In some sections, you just can't market milk on account of that garlicky flavor. Even when there is the slightest taint of garlic odor, however, it cuts down the demand.

During the garlic season, thousands of gallons of milk are rejected by market-milk plants as unsalable. Not only that, but the big butter markets, such as Philadelphia and New York, won't pay as much for garlicky butter. ----------(As if interrupted) -- How's that? ----"How can you get rid of it?" ---- You mean the garlic flavor -- after it is in the milk?

That's just the point. You can't get it out. Once that garlic flavor gets in the milk, there is no really efficient and economical way of getting it out.

That being the case, the best thing to do is to keep it from getting in. The best way to do that is to keep the cows from eating the wild onions.

Until you can manage that, the best thing to do is to take the cows off pasture, where there are wild onions, from four to seven hours before milking time.

When a cow is milked four hours after she has eaten wild onions, that garlic flavor is not nearly so strong as when she is first taken off pasture and milked. If you wait seven hours after she has eaten the wild onions before milking, that garlic flavor is not noticeable at all.

Experiments show that the garlic odor is absorbed from the digestive tract or from the lungs by the blood. From the blood it gets to the udder and into the milk.

And it is surprising how fast it gets there. Garlic flavor has been detected in milk drawn just one minute after the cow ate a half pound of garlic tops. In fact, there was a pronounced garlic flavor in milk drawn two minutes after cows have just inhaled garlic odor for ten minutes.

Yes, it has been demonstrated that the garlic flavor gets into the milk chiefly through the body of the cow. Don't think, however, that there's no danger in handling milk where there is an odor of garlic. Of course, if the milk is exposed to air filled with that wild onion odor, it will take on a decided garlic taste. So handle and store the milk where there are no such odors. -----(As if interrupted) ---- Yes ----- Yes, that's true.

As the gentleman down front here suggests, garlic flavor shows up worse in butter than it does in milk. It is worse in cream than in whole or skim milk. There seems to be some affinity between the garlic and the butterfat of milk ---- (As if interrupted) ---- What's that? ---- Other weeds? ---

Certainly, there are other weeds which affect milk. Fact is, some of the other weed odors stay in milk longer than the garlic odor. Some produce off-flavors which stay in the milk from one milking to the next.

When that's the case, the thing to do is to keep the cows off the pasture, until you can get rid of the weeds which cause the trouble. It is always a good idea to improve pastures by eradicating all weeds which are likely to taint milk.

Sometimes, however, it is not practical to keep the cows off pasture altogether, until you get rid of the weeds. In that case, the next best thing to do is take the cows off pasture as long as possible before milking. In that way, you will at least reduce the disagreeable flavors, because the longer the time between taking the cows off pasture and milking the less pronounced the off-flavors will be.

Just bear this in mind: In producing milk of a pleasing flavor, preventive measures are best.

And unless you use those preventive measures, you are hurting your business and thereby losing money.

People are drinking more milk now. But with that increase in milk using has come the demand that milk not only be sweet, but that it have a pleasing flavor. U. S. Department of Agriculture Leaflet No. 25-L deals with "Preventing Feed Flavors and Odors in Milk." Write for it, so you can have it handy.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: That leaflet was Leaflet No. 25-L. Leaflet No. 25-L is called "Preventing Feed Flavors and Odors in Milk." It is free for the asking, and you can get it by asking Station_____ for it, or by writing for it direct to the United States Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D. C.

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THE FARM FORUM: (Region 3) Thursday, April 4, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Dairy Meeting No. 27 a: Weed Flavors in Milk.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Wild onions are enough to make any milkman wild, but you will have to come to order! -- We have a specialist here. He's from the U. S. Department of Agriculture. If you dairymen will come to order, he may tell you how to get around garlic in the milk.

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Milk with a pleasing flavor has a tendency to sell itself.

But milk with a disagreeable flavor is rejected by dealers and consumers.

I understand that dairymen around here are giving considerable attention to prevention of losses due to milk souring. That's fine! -- And you'll find that pays.

Too few realize, however, that off-flavors in milk are causing probably as big losses as sour milk.

Of course, you know, one of the biggest causes of off-flavors in milk is weeds. And one of the worst weeds in that respect is garlic, or wild onion. In some sections, you just can't market the milk on account of that garlicky flavor.

During the garlic season, thousands of gallons of milk are rejected by market-milk plants as unsalable because of garlic flavor. Not only that, but the big butter markets, such as Philadelphia and New York, won't pay as much for garlicky butter. ---------- (As if interrupted) ------- How's that? ----- "How can you get the garlic flavor out of milk," you say?" ---

That's just the point. You can't. There is no efficient or economical way of getting the garlic flavor out once it gets in.

That being the case, the best thing to do is to keep it from getting in. The best way to do that is to keep the cows from eating the wild onions.

Until you can do that, the best thing to do is to take the cows off pasture where there is wild-onion, from 4 to 7 hours before milking.

When a cow is milked four hours after she has eaten wild onions, that garlic flavor is not nearly so strong as when she is taken right off pasture and milked. And if you wait seven hours after she has eaten wild onions before milking, that garlic flavor is not noticeable at all.

The experiments show that the garlic is absorbed by the blood stream from the digestive tract or from the lungs. From the blood it is transmitted to the udder and to the milk.

It is surprising how fast the garlic odor gets into the milk. Garlic flavor has been detected in milk drawn one minute after the cows ate a half-pound of garlic tops. In fact, there was a pronounced garlic flavor in milk two minutes after cows had just breathed for ten minutes air filled with garlic odor.

As I say, the garlic flavor gets into the milk mainly through the body of the cow. But if the milk is exposed to air filled with that wild onion odor, of course, it will take on a decided garlic flavor. For that reason, it is important to handle and store the milk where there isn't any garlic odor.

As the gentleman down front here suggests, garlic flavor is worse in butter than it is in milk. It is worse in cream than in whole or skim milk. There seems to be an affinity between garlic flavor and the butterfat of milk.--

But as I was going to say, practically all the strong-flavored feeds and most weeds leave an objectionable odor in milk for only a short time after the weeds are eaten ------- (As if interrupted) ----- What! --- "Except bitterweed?"

Except bitterweed is right. Some weeds, such as bitterweed stay in the milk as long as 24 hours after the cow has eaten the weed. When such weeds are in your pasture, the only thing to do is to keep the cows off the pasture, until you get rid of the weeds.

Bitterweed, when eaten by a dairy cow, gives a bitter taste to the milk. Often the milk is just so bitter it can't be used for human food. And, sad to say, in large sections of the Southern States bitterweed is plentiful. And, as some of you know to your sorrow, losses from bitterweed flavor are sometimes big.

Bitterweed in milk is not like other feeds and most weeds. Those others affect the odor as well as the taste of the milk. But milk with bitterweed flavor smells like normal milk ----- but it doesn't taste that way --- no --- Another difference is that the bitterness doesn't go to the butterfat. Bitterweed flavor is more pronounced in skimmilk than in whole milk and much weaker in cream than in skimmilk.

The big thing to bear in mind, however, is that the bitterweed flavor does not disappear from one milking to the next. In fact, as I said, it is present in milk produced 24 hours after the cows eat ten pounds of the weed. But milk produced 27 hours after the cows eat that much bitterweed is free from the flavor.

Cows won't eat bitterweed from choice. It is only when it is so plentiful that they can't help themselves that you get that bitterweed flavor. In fact, a cow must eat 4-1/2 to 5 pounds of bitterweed one hour before milking or 2-1/2 to 3 pounds (one-half pound at one- hour intervals) to within two hours of milking before you notice the effect in the milk. The more bitterweed the bitterer the milk.

The way to produce pleasing milk is to prevent those off-flavors. Improve your pastures by rooting out all weeds likely to taint the milk. Until you do that, better take the cows off infested pastures as long as you can before milking. The longer the time between the milking and the weed eating, the less the off-flavors. But when you get weeds like bitterweed, which produce off-flavors in milk from one milking to the next, keep the cows off the pasture until you get rid of the weeds.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will talk about keeping the cellar dry. That's a subject which should interest a number of you. Then next Monday we will have a talk on the meat consumer as a key to the cattle market.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 1 and 3) Friday, April 5, 1929.

Farm Engineering, Meeting No. 27a: Keeping Cellars Dry.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Our Farm Engineer from the U. S. Department of Agriculture is going to talk to us about keeping the cellar dry. I'll let him tell you what he means by a dry cellar------

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How's your cellar?

Is it a wholesome, useful thing? Or is it just a dark, musty hole in the ground?

Thousands of cellars are just that kind.

After every rain they collect a lot of water and trouble, dampness and discomfort.

Admiral Bob Evans once said that the only thing a souvenir-fiend won't steal is a cellar full of water. Damp cellars are no good for keeping fruits and vegetables. They are not much good for storage. You can't use them for a workshop. Furnaces in them rust fast. Woodwork rots. They are souvenirs of sickness and bad health. The dampness gets up into the ground floor rooms, and makes them damp, cold and unpleasant. ---------- (As if interrupted)--"Can't keep it out you say?"

How hard have you tried? ---- Why is there water in your cellar? --- Where does it get in?

Find that out first, before you come here telling us you can't keep it out.

One of the chief causes of damp cellars is poor grading of the outside ground. If the ground is flat or slopes toward the building, naturally rain or melting snow will sink down the back of the wall. It will find an opening usually near where the wall and floor join.

If the eaves-troughs and down spouts are worn out or lacking, water from the roof is apt to make muddy pools and keep the ground soaked with water.

When you have troubles like that, of course, the thing to do is to put the eavestroughs and down spouts in good working order. Put more earth next the wall. Then grade the ground. Make a smooth, sharp, down slope at least 10 feet out from the building.

The water from those down spouts should be led away by short paved gutters or by underground tile drains to suitable dry wells or surface outlets.

If you have to grade as high as the cellar windows to get enough slope, build simple concrete or brick walls to hold the dirt back from the windows. Then, after you have plugged the leaks and graded the surface, seed the slope with lawn grass. Rake it and roll it. Handled that way, a sharp-sloping, well-grassed zone around the house will do a good deal toward carrying off the surface water. It will help keep the cellar dry at the same time it improves the appearance of the place. -------(As if interrupted) All right? --- Did you have a question? --- "How about ground water?"

Well, the simplest, surest remedy for ground water trouble is to lay a 4-inch tile drain along the outside bottom of the wall on the side from which the water gets in the cellar. Dig out about a foot of extra width, to give room for laying the drain.

Then, when you have laid the drain, fill the trench with broken stone or coarse gravel to near the grading surface.

Of course the line of tile should run to a suitable drainage outlet. But a drain and a belt of coarse material placed around a cellar that way, not only collects and carries off seepage water but intercepts dampness from the earth around it.

Where the cost is too high, or where trees or shrubbery or the like make it inadvisable to dig a trench along the outside of a wall, you can lay it along the inside bottom and from there out under the wall to the drainage outlet. -------(As if interrupted) Yes? ----- "Suppose the cellar floor is below ground water?"

Well, when you can't lower the water by drainage, of course, the thing to do is to make the cellar water-tight. And that's a man's job; making old cellars water-tight and damp-proof. It takes intelligent and thorough workmanship in each and every detail. But anybody who is reasonably apt can do a creditable water-proofing or damp-proofing job, after he has read Year Book Separate 824, "Securing a Dry Cellar" which can be had by writing the Department of Agriculture.

Before you spend a lot of money draining or water-proofing or damp-proofing, make sure it is not just a case of sweating due to the air moisture condensing on cold surfaces inside the cellar. The best way to get at that sweating is by ventilation.

Generally speaking, where sweating gives trouble, the windows and bulkheads should be open day and night during fair weather and when it is cooler outside than inside the cellar.

On the other hand, during hot "sticky" weather or long rainy spells, windows and bulkheads should be closed. At such times, the outside air is likely to be more moist than cellar air.

And if you have any of those close-growing vines or shrubbery or trees obstructing or shading the cellar windows, prune them or thin them out. Sunlight and free movement of air can do wonders in taking off dampness and wetness.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Monday we will have a talk either on the lamb supply or on the meat consumer as a key to the cattle market. Tuesday, as usual, we'll take up some problems of chick raising. Thursday we'll go into making cottage cheese on the farm, and Friday we will have a man here to explain the function of government crop forecasts and estimates.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 2, 4, and 5) Friday, April 5, 1929.

Farm Engineering, Meeting No. 27b: The Combine.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Our Agricultural Engineer is here. He is going to give us some pointers on the care and operation of the combined harvester and thresher. All right, Mr. Engineer! Of course, we all realize you can't give us definite rules that will fit all conditions, but you can give us the general rules -------

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Yes, a few general rules will help. Following them, may save you a lot of trouble.

Even to those of you using a combine for the first time this year, it is not so new. As the name shows, the combine cuts and threshes the grain in one operation. The sickle, the reel, and platform and platform canvas are very much like those used on a binder and header. The threshing and separating parts are practically the same as those used on a threshing machine. So you see, we are dealing with something more or less familiar to all of us; those who have used combines before as well as those who have not.

Before you start the season's work, you should, of course, inspect the combine thoroughly to see that everything is in working order. Don't leave any tools in the machine or on the platform, however. Carelessness like that can cause a lot of damage.

Turn the cylinder and other moving parts by hand; so as to see that everything is in good order and free to move. Make sure all the chains and belts are put on right. You know, some real disasters have happened when parts of a combine were driven in the wrong direction.

And before greasing the combine, clean the paint and dirt from all the bearings and oil holes. On bearings using hard oilers, force the grease in until it appears at the ends of the bearings. That forces out any dirt and insures complete lubrication. Fill the oil cups again and again until you get the space around the bearing completely filled with oil.

Instructions for the proper lubrication of the machine, usually come with the machine. Follow those instructions carefully. Remember, the life and usefulness of your combine depends to a large extent on proper lubrication. ----(As if interrupted) Beg pardon, did you have a question? --- "When would I start?" --- You mean when should you start harvesting? ---

Well, don't start harvesting with a combine until seven to ten days after you are used to starting with the binder or header. I'm glad you brought that question up. Ripe, dry grain is one of the first essentials for the successful operation of a combine. Green or damp grain interferes

with the threshing and cleaning. But worse than that, it hurts the market value and the keeping qualities of the grain. Then too, tough straw has a tendency to clog the machine by winding on the cylinder and other moving parts. Little pieces of tough straw are hard to get out of the threshed grain because the straw is much heavier when damp and green. If the threshed grain feels damp or is easily dented with the finger nail, there is too much moisture in it for safe storage.

That's well to remember, but we are not that far along yet. Before you even start a new combine, you should run it several hours with nothing in it, before you put it to work. If the harvester is equipped with an engine, it is a good idea to run the engine at low speed for an hour or more before throwing the combine in gear. Then run the combine idle long enough to "wear in" the moving parts before starting the machine in the field. And be sure and do that "breaking-in" some time before harvest season actually begins. If you don't, you may lose valuable time, if there should be any trouble calling for repairs or the help of an expert mechanic. --------(As if Interrupted) ---- How's that? ---- "How about an old machine?"

Sure, combines used last season should also be thoroughly inspected, and repaired, and run for a short time before harvest actually begins---- several weeks before.

Of course, there will be adjustments to make in the field. But you can have all the parts in such condition, that you can make the adjustments with as little delay as possible.

The sieves and fan should be adjusted so as to do a proper job of cleaning. The amount of weed seed, and dirt, and trash in grain has a lot to do with what you get for it and how it keeps. That foreign matter has to come out sooner or later. It takes a good deal of skill to do a good job of cleaning grain, but the man running the combine can do it if he uses the skill. But it depends not only on the adjustment of the sieves and fan, but on the way the entire machine is run.

And when you leave the combine standing overnight exposed to the weather, be sure to take off the platform canvas and all the belts or protect them from the rain and dew.

Old binder or header canvas is a good thing to use in covering the combine canvas and belts. Or you can just take them off and put them in the rear of the machine. Don't leave any straw and chaff in the machine, either ----- (As if interrupted) What? ----

Oh, you can get most of the straw and chaff out by running the machine idle for a few minutes after you finish the day's work. Straw and chaff holds moisture, you know, and it will make the metal parts rust and the wood parts rot if you don't get it out promptly.

And, of course, at the end of the harvest season, you should clean the combine thoroughly both inside and out. Then house it in a shed or barn under a good roof. Take off the belts and canvas and put them where rats and other pests can't get to them.

If you have no way of housing the combine, take off all belts and canvas and store them in a dry place. Take off the reel and hang it up in a shed so the slats won't get broken or warped. Then paint the machine with a good grade of paint and coat the metal parts with heavy oil, and the wood parts with linseed oil.

And while you are cleaning the machine, inspect all the parts and list all repairs needed. You'll find a list handy in making repairs, and it may save you delays next harvest season.

Remember, parts on different sizes and models are not always interchangeable, so when ordering repairs be sure to give the make, and model, and size, and number of the machine as well as the description, and numbers of the parts and the quantity you want.

Study the combine maker's manual on the care and operation of the machine. If you follow instructions, you may save time, work, and grain.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Next Monday is our regular Livestock meeting. Tuesday, we will talk some more about chick raising. Wednesday, we'll get after the flies. Having driven them off on Wednesday, on Thursday we'll make some cottage cheese, and be ready for explanation of the government's crop forecasts on Friday.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 1 and 5) Monday, April 8, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Livestock Meeting No. 28a: Year-Round Lamb Supply

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- We have with us today a market specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture. He is going to tell us about our lamb supply. I saw some figures the other day that flocks were just as big forty years ago as they are now, but wholesale slaughter was less than half of what it is now. It looked sort of queer to me. Maybe you can tell us how that happens, Mr. Expert -- if it does?

****

Oh, yes, Those figures are all right. And some of you may have noticed that we get more good lamb now than we used to.

Back forty years ago, Mary had a little lamb, because she couldn't get any more. There was very little offered for sale. Most of the sheep slaughtered then were from 4 to 8 years old. They were mostly merino or other fine-wool sheep. As some of you recall, we raised sheep mostly for their wool.

Now, you know, most of our sheep are kept primarily for raising market lambs. Sheep raising, like a lot of other things in farming, has gone through a big change. Now Mary can have plenty of lamb any time of the year. -------- (As if interrupted) ------- Yes, that's what I said 'all the year around' ----- What? ---

Sure, you're right. Seventy-five per cent of the year's lamb crop is born in March, April, and May. Even so, there is a steady supply of fresh lamb all through the year.

Lambs born in the late fall and early winter reach market in the early spring. Some of those extra early lambs are given special care and attention. Then they are marketed as "hothouse" lambs. Most of those "hothouse" lambs are raised in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York State. They are sold in the big cities where there is a special demand for them. ----- Oh, yes, I know, they're too high for the average consumer. They are a real luxury.

I just mention those as part of the early spring market supply. Don't misunderstand me, they are just a small part of the early spring market supply of lamb.

As you all know, meat dealers like to advertise their lambs as "genuine" spring lambs. The real spring lambs, however, are those marketed direct from

their mothers; those that have not lost their milk fat. Most of them reach market during May and June. Lambs reaching market in the summer and fall are usually off grass. Of course, they don't equal the real spring lamb in quality.

Almost half of the lambs received at market in a year, arrive during the four months, August, September, October and November. Lucky for you sheep raisers, as well as for the folks who like lamb, all those lambs are not killed right away. Many of them are taken back to the country to be fattened on grain and alfalfa and other feed. They come back to market for slaughter during the winter and early spring. That's what gives us our year around supply of lamb.

Most of those lambs which are returned to feed lots for fattening for the winter and early spring markets are selected from among the western lambs. Of course, the bulk of the western lambs are marketed in the summer and fall.

In fact, about 65 per cent of the entire lamb crop of the country is raised in the western States, under open range conditions. Those "westerns" raised in California are the first to reach market in the spring as our earliest spring lambs.

One of the most important lamb producing States in the West is Idaho. In order to produce lambs for the early market, many Idaho sheepmen now provide sheds for the ewes and young lambs during the lambing season.

Now because of the possibility of their becoming infested with intestinal parasites, lambs raised from small farm flocks in the Corn Belt and eastern half of the country are unsatisfactory for feeding. Most of them are sold for slaughter as soon as they reach good market weights. Those lambs are called "natives" and the first of the "native" lambs reach market in May from Tennessee and Virginia and Kentucky. Usually they are in big demand as spring lambs. Practically all the native lambs are marketed by the end of October, although scattered shipments are made in November and December.

Then, in the late fall and early winter, come the "come-backs." That is, the lambs which were bought earlier as feeders and sent out to Corn Belt farmers to clean up stubble and farm roughage.

The supplies from January to April are mostly fed lambs from the Corn Belt and the commercial feeding sections of Colorado and Western Nebraska. These fed lambs are older and heavier than those marketed at other seasons. Sometimes, because of their weight, they are in less demand. Yet they rank high in quality and finish.

Yes, we have a good supply of lamb all the year around. It is a big supply. About 13 million sheep and lambs are slaughtered in this country each year under federal inspection. They bring producers more than one hundred million dollars a year.

At least half of that big supply is eaten in the industrial East; that is, in the region east of Ohio and north of the Potomac River. New York City

alone takes almost one-third of the supply. Yes, the industrial East eats half our lamb. The Pacific Coast States eat about 15 per cent of the total supply and the rest, a little over a third of all the lamb, is eaten in the other 34 States.

Taken the entire country over, the per capita consumption of lamb is only about five and a half pounds a year. If all the rest of the country ate as much lamb as the East and the Pacific Coast States we would just have to raise more lambs.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will take up some more problems in chick raising. Wednesday, we are going to swat the fly; so we will be able to make cottage cheese on the farm Thursday. After that, on Friday, we'll look into these government crop forecasts.

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 2) Mon. April 8, 1929.
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NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Livestock Meeting No. 28b: Grading Feeders

ANNOUNCEMENT: Order in the Farm Forum! ----Attention all you cattle men! This man here says he is going to tell us how to cut down the risks in feeding steers. He says it can be done by careful grading. He'll tell you how. ---------- Gentlemen,--------- Mr. Marketing Specialist of the U.S. Department of Agriculture ---------

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If you want to reduce feeding risks to the minimum, select feeder steers of the same grade and weight and age. By selecting steers of the same grade, and the same general line of breeding, and from the same section of the country, you can get more even results from the feeding than you can with steers of several different grades, and weights, and ages.

In buying evenly graded feeders, the idea is to produce a definite grade of slaughter steers. That is so each carload you ship will be a one-grade lot; instead of mixed lots of two or three or sometimes four grades. ---------(As if interrupted) Why? -------- "Why is that important?" Why should you market one grade instead of several? --- Is that what you mean?

Well, simply because premiums are being paid for evenly graded lots. Sales at slaughter cattle markets show that right along. ----"Why's that?"

Fundamentally, it is because the man who eats the beef wants certain quality beef and is willing to pay well for it. And because he turns down other kinds. He penalizes other grades and weights. Don't forget the man seated at the table. He's the man who dominates the cattle business these days.

It used to be that there wasn't over two cents a pound difference between the market prices for the bottom of common grade steers and the top of choice grade steers. Now there is from 4 to 5 cents difference.

Choice grade steer beef and medium grade steer beef, for instance, don't meet the same consuming demand. There is a demand for each of them, but it is a different demand. They sell for prices which have little relation to each other or to any food values. Prices for one grade of beef may be going up, while prices for another grade are going down. Grades have almost become distinct commodities.

And the different grades of feeder steers feed out in different ways. A ration that's suited to a common, rough, coarse-framed steer is generally not the best feed for finishing off nice smooth choice grade feeders. Yearling steers don't make the most economical gains on rations best suited for three-year-olds. And so it goes.

Let's take a load of even-weight, common grade steers ----- common grade because they lack the conformation and quality and also because of poor beef type breeding.--- Such steers are just not built to turn a lot of high priced concentrates into fine, smooth-finished, well-marbled, brigh-colored lean meat of high quality and flavor such as choice feeder steers produce.

Under normal market conditions, a load of even-weight, common grade steers only justify being held for the first quick gains made from plenty of succulent feed.

Well-bred choice feeder steers, on the other hand, are the result of around 200 years of selective breeding to give the proper conformation and fullness to the loin, and the rib, and the round; the three high priced cuts in the carcass; and also for their ability to take 100 pounds of a well balanced ration and make liberal gains with it. On account of their feed using ability, with them it pays to carry the fattening process to a point which would just mean waste with common grade feeders.

Of course, each grade of steers has its place. But it doesn't pay to take the feeding risk on the wrong grades, or with mixed grades in the same feedlot.

Select your feeder steers with an eye to the kind and quality of surplus feed you have to use. Consider the cattle as machines, some grades of which will use the raw material to better advantage than others.

Often a single load of cattle has three types of machines in it. It has a few outstanding good feed users, way above the average for their grade. A general lot of normal gainers. And a few poor, unprofitable boarders. It is good business to cull out those poor doers the first chance you get. Then give all the feed to the 85 or 90 per cent of better feeders.

Steers in the same lot will vary from gains of 325 pounds to as much as 425 pounds in the same time. The keeping of poor feeders along with the better feeders means a big loss.

You can see how that is. If one steer will make as much gain with 100 pounds of feed as another one does with 135 pounds of the same ration, your returns on that first type steer are a third more than on the other.

Then, if the steers go to market together the finish of the first kind is much the better. If they are sold on their merits, you get a higher price per pound for the better-finished, better-feed -user.

But that's the big trouble. In mixed lots, the tailenders sell along with their feedlot mates at a flat price. In other words, the poorer-finished steers often bring down the prices on the whole lot. You are penalized for carrying the poorer ones to market with the good ones.

When you consider the wide spread in prices of both feeder and fat cattle due to their grades and the big differences in the gains the different grades make, you can't afford to risk just feeding so many head of cattle.

My advice to you is: first, to give careful attention to the grade of beef you plan to produce.

Then, give careful attention to the amount and kind of feed you have raised.

Then, consider whether you want the steers for a quick "warmed-up" turn or for a long smooth finish.

Good judgement along those lines may mean the difference between profit and loss from your year's work.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will take up some problems of chick raising. Then Wednesday, we'll consider what we can do to get rid of the flies. Thursday, we'll make some cottage cheese, and Friday, we'll have an expert here to tell us just what good the government crop forecasts do anyway.

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 3) Mon. April 8, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Livestock Meeting No.28: The Key to the Livestock Market

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --We have a man who is going to give us the key to the livestock market. That sounds interesting, so let's have order! ----This man is a specialist, a marketing specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture. All right, Mr. Specialist ---- Where's that key to the livestock market?------

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Your livestock market is the consumer's plate.

It is the meat consumer who provides all the money which you share with the transportation company, and the commission merchant, and the stockyards company, and the packer, and the slaughterer, and the wholesale meat dealer, and the retail butcher.

Normally, if the man who eats the meat is highly satisfied with the meat he buys, he buys liberally and cheerfully and often. if not, he cuts his meat buying to the minimum. Often, he becomes a complaining and troublesome customer. The retail butcher cuts down his orders from the wholesaler. So it goes. From the wholesaler to the slaughterer, to the packer, to the stockyards company, to the commission merchant, to the railroad, and to you livestock producers. Under such circumstances depression is likely to settle over the entire livestock and meat business.

That being the case, you'd think the meat consumer would be the center of attraction. With the success or failure of the whole industry depending on the way he spends his money, it would seem that the likes and dislikes, the tastes, and peculiarities of the meat consumer would be kept in mind by everybody in the livestock business. Yet, unfortunately, that is generally not the case. In fact, it seldom is.

I know how most of you feel about it. You sell your cattle, or hogs or sheep to a country drover. You get his check or draft or cash. Then you consider the transaction closed. You consider the

country buyer as your market. You feel that you are not concerned about what he does with the livestock, what he gets for it, or whether he makes or loses money on the bargain.

It is pretty much the same with the drover and the commission man, and the packer and the slaughterer. Each looks on the buyer of his goods as his particular market.

The packer or slaughterer does a big business and is forced to give a little more attention to the consumer's plate. Nevertheless, when the animals are slaughtered and the carcasses are dressed and the various meat products prepared, the packer usually looks to the wholesaler or the retailer to take those products off his hands. He studies supplies, and demand and prices in different parts of the country and maybe in foreign countries. Then he ships the meat where he thinks he will make the most money. But he depends on the distributor or on the retailer to provide him with a market.

Usually, he gets his meat into the hands of wholesale or retail dealers as fast as possible, so that he can get back on the livestock market and buy more raw material with which to keep his plant running. The retailer is his market.

Of course, the retail meat dealer is directly interested in the meat consumer. He is in immediate contact with him. He depends on the consumer to buy his stuff. But even the meat dealer gives surprisingly little time and attention to studying the thousand and one peculiarities and preferences of his customers. If he gave more, he might increase his profits considerably.

Too often, retailers look upon consumer dissatisfaction and the losses in trade due to it as something which is just bound to be. They seem to figure it is just one of those things about which nothing can be done.

And that attitude is reflected all through the meat and livestock business. All branches of the meat business frequently fail to look ahead. They fail to picture the consumer and his needs and wants. Yet that is the key to the entire livestock market situation. Every link in the chain from the farm to the table acts as if it was the whole chain. Naturally that leads to dissatisfaction, loss and waste.

Remember, the folks who eat the meat hold the purse strings. As in other things, so with meat, the consumer will loosen up the strings only when and enough to get what he wants.

For that reason, there is just one thing I want you to think over. That is this idea that the meat consumer is the key to the livestock market. As livestock producers you men here should be just as much interested in knowing whether the consuming public wants light or

heavy steaks, roasts and chops, fat meat or lean meat, high grade or low grade meat, as you are in following the demand and price situation at your favorite livestock market or as you are in getting two drovers to compete in buying your livestock.

The country drover, the central market buying agencies, the wholesale and retail meat dealers can buy only the kinds, and classes, and ages, and weights and grades of livestock, which the meat consumer will take at a profit. Not only that, but, generally speaking, they will pay you the best price for the thing which the meat consumer wants most.

From what I've said, it is plain that the livestock producers and all the other fellows between them and the ultimate consumer will find that it pays to keep their attention focused on what the consumer wants, what he will pay most money for, and in any changes which take place from time to time in what he prefers.

Remember the meat consumer is the key to both the livestock and the meat markets ------(As if interrupted) --------What say? --------- Why? ---- Why not depend on the other fellow doing that? ----------

The answer to that is that "Foresight is better than hindsight."

By failing to look ahead, or rather beyond what he usually considered his market, the livestock producer is courting losses.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will talk about chick raising again. Wednesday we will try to get rid of the flies, so we can make cottage cheese on Thursday; and be ready for the meeting Friday when the expert tells us about these government crop forecasts and how they work.

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 4) Monday, April 8, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Livestock Meeting No. 28d: Wool Standards.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- We have with us a wool marketing specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture. He is going to tell us a few things about the wool market situation. Sometimes we wool growers can't see the wool for the sheep. Maybe this gentleman here, however, can answer that old question: "Whither are we drifting? And if so, how far?"

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That's a big question. Wool is one of the greatest commercial crops in the world.

Australia, of course, leads in wool growing. The United States is comparatively young at the business. But the United States is up and coming.

In four years, wool production in this country has increased 60 million pounds, We now produce more than three hundred million pounds of wool a year. Australia produces around eight hundred million pounds a year.

But wool production is not only a question of quantity, it is a question of quality.

World production of wool is now around three billion pounds. But there has not yet been noticed any over-production of wool. There is some evidence that the quality of wool is not what it was. On the other hand, there is evidence that the quality is better. Anyway, more attention is being paid to quality. Wool is being bought and sold more and more on a quality basis.

Of course, all you men know, that when wool is sheared from sheep it is always greasy. It has to go through various treatments before it can be made into cloth. Then too, there are many different breeds and cross-breeds of sheep. Each produces a little different quality of wool. The fine-fibered wools are mostly made into fine worsted suitings and ladies dress goods. Long, coarse-fibered wool is made into rough-faced fabrics. All wool, of course, has to be graded before it goes into manufacture. But much of it is sold by the wool-grower without being graded. It is graded later. It is often bought on a flat basis.

Where wool growers in a locality produce different qualities of wool, usually they all get the same price a pound for ungraded wool. In most cases, however, there would be several cents a pound difference in prices of clips of different flocks if all were sold on a strictly graded basis.

Naturally, a wool grower who produces poor wool benefits by the flat price basis. But that's unfair to the man who tries to produce good quality wool, while others simply produce on the quantity basis.

Before 1923, most sections of the country had grade terms of their own. Often the qualities represented by certain grade terms on different markets were very different. Even in the central markets, there was a big difference of opinion as to what constituted a particular grade. There were grades but the grades were not standard.

Realizing that standards would speed up the improvement in growing and marketing and manufacturing and also make possible an understandable market reporting service on wool, the U. S. Department of Agriculture began investigating this subject.

The Department experts soon found that there was an absolute need for wool standards, grades which would mean the same thing to everybody concerned and on every market. They also found that wool growers generally knew very little about the value and grade of the wool they sell.

As a result of that investigation, the Department established official standards for seven grades of wool in 1923.

Further investigations proved the need for further refinement in the grading and twelve grade standards were established. Those grades were submitted to the wool trade for suggestions for improvement. The wool trade in this country approved them.

Then those standards were taken to Europe. The United States Standard grades for wool were unanimously approved by the British wool industry.

Those U. S. Official standard grades are now very commonly used all over the United States. The standards or sample sets of the grades are being distributed to agricultural schools, colleges, county agents, and wool growers. Not only that, but they are being very extensively used for practical grading at many of the wool warehouses in local and central markets.

The 12 grades are used mostly by the manufacturers who need to make fine distinctions between wools for special uses. The seven grades, however, have a wider range. Those Seven Standard Grades enable the wool grower to understand and to find out the quality of the wool he grows.

Because wool people in the United States and England wanted standards for top, the standardization program was extended to include top. Top, you know, is a preparation from wool cleansed of grease, and dirt removed, then combed on a machine that lays the fibers parallel, to get it ready for other manufacturing processes. The standard qualities of Top are determined by the diameter of the fibre just as with the wool fiber. The official standard

grades for wool top, therefore, correspond as to diameter of fiber with the 12 grades of wool.

The United States standard grades for both wool and top have been shown before International Conferences and sample sets have been sent to England, France, Germany, Australia, Chili, Italy, New Zealand, Poland, the Union of South Africa, Mexico, and the Argentine. That gives you some idea of the interest in wool standards of quality.

Yes, all branches of the wool trade have accepted the standard grades. It is now up to wool-growers to make use of those standards; so you can judge the value of your wool and so you can read and understand wool market reports.

You can get standard grade sets at a nominal charge by asking the United States Department of Agriculture for them.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will talk over some chick raising problems. Wednesday, we'll see what can be done about the flies. Thursday, we'll make some cottage cheese, and Friday, we'll have a man here to explain Government crop forecasts to us.

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THE FARM FORUM

Tuesday, April 9, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Poultry Meeting No. 28: Problems in Chicken Raising.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- The Poultry Expert is here! -- Come on, men, get seated! -- He is going to tell us some more about raising chicks. Those of you who are brooding chicks for the first time this year, should be especially interested. Of course, we all know proper feeding and proper brooder temperature are needed; but what else would you suggest, Mr. Expert? -----

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Well, first thing to do is to educate your chicks.

That is, teach them to use the brooder. They've got to learn to go to the stove to get warm.

If they don't, if they start huddling in the sunshine or in a corner away from the brooder, you may have a hard time breaking them of the habit.

Of course, before you put them in the brooder, see that everything is in good condition. See that the stove is working perfectly.

At first, the chicks should be confined around the brooder. Round off all corners of the brooder house with wire netting to keep the chicks from packing in the corners.

But don't put more chicks around the brooder than it is supposed to hold. Crowding doesn't pay; either with baby chicks or with older chicks. In fact, you can usually get better results by using only two-thirds to three-quarters as many chicks as the brooder is rated to accommodate. Brooding about 400 chicks in one flock is better than keeping more together. Keeping chicks in big flocks makes packing together, toe picking, and crowding much more liable to develop. Overcrowding is especially common in raising chickens in small brood coops. Remember chicks grow day by day in every way. They gradually outgrow their quarters. But you can lessen the chances of crowding on that account, by culling all the weak chicks and by marketing the cockerels as broilers.

Of course, crowding is the only way they can get warm if the fire gets low. Leave a good fire, well banked at night to take care of any sudden drops in the temperature. By keeping the fire going for several weeks, you can lessen the chances of crowding during cool nights. They'll get away from the stove if it gets too warm. But there's nothing they can do but crowd together if it gets too cold -------(As if interrupted) We seem to have a question over here ---- - Yes? --- "How can you stop toe-picking?"

Take out promptly any chicks that are picked, so the bad habit won't spread. Toe picking is especially common in bad weather when chicks are shut up in a brooder house. One chick starts to pick at another chick's toes until blood is drawn. That attracts other chicks.

Feeding the chicks regularly, never letting them get hungry, and feeding them milk and green feed helps prevent toe picking. After they get outdoors, there is usually little trouble from toe picking.

In fact, getting the chicks out of doors on grass helps avoid a lot of chick problems. That is, it does if the land is free from parasites and disease germs. In mild weather, you can let the chicks out when they are five to six days old. For the first ten days, however, fix a small wire yard to keep them in front of the brooder house.

After the first ten days, outside the brooder house, let the chicks out on free range or in big yards. If possible give them grass range. A good grass chick range will furnish the chicks green feed and sunlight, keep them growing fast and cut down deaths.

Brooder houses should be portable, and should be so placed that they can be moved to fresh land. A grass range will usually keep in good condition, however, where brooder houses holding about 400 chicks are placed 125 feet apart. If you keep them in small yard, you should move them often to fresh land; the length of time depending, of course, on the size of the yards.

The ideal way to hatch chicks is to hatch them all at the same time. The next best thing, is to have only two or three hatches and then keep the chicks separated.

Anyway, keep chicks of different hatches separated. Small chicks put in the same yard with bigger chicks don't have a fair chance. A difference of even two or three weeks in the age makes considerable difference in size. The earlier-hatched chicks have the advantage of fresh range. Then when the later-hatched chicks come along the green stuff is gone and the range is in much poorer condition.

And the land should be clean. Clean land is one of the biggest problems in sanitation. Land may look all right, but be infected with disease or with parasites, which produce disease conditions. Light, well drained land in alfalfa or grass is ideal for raising chickens. But rotation of fields is a good plan. How often you should rotate depends on how heavily the land is stocked, on the nature of the soil, and on the stand of grass.

That matter of infested land is so serious, that on many intensive poultry farms the young chicks are kept entirely off the land during the brooding. They are either raised inside or given small outside yards, floored with concrete, or wire mesh or cinders.

And remember, too, you should put low roosts in the back part of the brooder house, so as to get the chicks to roost at an early age. Leghorn chicks will start to roost when they are three or four weeks old, while the bigger breeds will roost at from five to six weeks.

I'd advise any of you to get that bulletin on "Incubation and Brooding of Chicks." It is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1538-F. There is also a Farmers' Bulletin No. 1524-F on "Farm Chicken Raising" which is handy to have. You can get either or both of those bulletins by writing for them. They are free.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Did you get those numbers? The one on "Brooding" is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1538-F. The one on the more general subject of "Farm Chicken Raising" is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1524-F. You can get these bulletins by writing to Station_____ or by writing direct to the U.S. Department of Agriculture at Washington, D. C.

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THE FARM FORUM — Wednesday, April 10, 1929

Meeting No. 28: — Fly Control on the Farm

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- The time has come to swat the fly. But we want to do a little more than that. Swatting flies seems to be an all-summer job. For that reason, we've asked this entomologist from the U.S. Department of Agriculture to give us a few hints on keeping down these pesky flies this year -------- Mr. Fly-fighter you have the floor----------

****

The Chairman is right. It is all right to start out swatting the first flies that show up in the spring. But that really is not going to get you very far, if you let flies breed on your place. They can breed faster than you can possibly swat.

Remember that all the house flies don't get in the house. Quite a few stick around the barn or dairy.---- Yes, "stick" is what I said, especially on damp days. Even if you kill off all in the house and barn, there will be others ready to come in the first chance they get.------ (As if interrupted) Yes? ---- "Where do they all come from?"

Well, you go out to your barn and get a pitch fork. Stir around in the manure pile, you'll find out. Find some manure not more than ten days old. In it, you'll find a lot of little wiggling white worms or maggots. Those are the baby flies. The manure pile is their nursery.

House flies lay their eggs in fresh manure or other rotting vegetable matter. The eggs usually hatch in less than twenty-four hours into those little worms which start feeding and growing right away.

They feed and grow for from four to seven days under favorable conditions, then they change to pupae, sometimes called "sleepers." This is a resting stage and lasts usually from three to six days in midsummer. At the end of that time, they've gone through a caterpillar-to-butterfly sort of change and come out as brand new flies; ready to begin the operations and activities of a new generation.

Under the most favorable conditions in the middle of summer, generations of flies follow each other about every ten days. Each female fly is capable of laying several hundred eggs in her life time. So it is very evident why we have so many flies in the summer, and why they get thicker and thicker toward the close of the season.

You can easily see what to do to prevent that. The manure and the garbage are where the new generations start. To keep those flies down, clean up the manure and garbage religiously and regularly from now on through the summer.----(As if interrupted)--What's that?---- The manure is valuable?"

Sure it is. But it is not doing any good in the pile, and you

should not wait until you have a wagon load before hauling it away. A few days' delay may mean several million more flies on your place. If the manure contains large fly maggots when it is spread, these may not be killed but are likely to go on developing and become flies. Haul the manure out to the fields every day, when it is fresh, and scatter it thinly over the ground. Then the sun will dry it so thoroughly that fly maggots will not be likely to develop in it. You'll cut down the multiplication of flies at the biggest source in this way.

If you cant spare the time to remove the manure and spread it on the fields regularly every day, then you should store it promptly in a flyproof pit or bin, or treat it with certain chemicals, as explained in Farmers' Bulletin 1408, to kill the eggs and maggots.

See to it that the screens on your doors and windows are in good condition for the season. Even with careful attention to disposing of the manure, there will be a few flies around. So don't neglect the screens. -------(As if interrupted) What's that? ----- "you get your neighbor's flies, huh?"

That's too bad --- but I'm glad you mentioned that. It is always well to remember that a house fly can fly. It can fly quite a distance, too. And, as you say, if your neighbors keep on breeding flies, you are very likely to get some of their crop.

For that reason, I'd advise you not to stop at your own place. Try to get your neighbors to take these same measures. Make it a community project. It is a mutual advantage. When you prevent flies breeding on your place, you help keep flies out of your neighbor's house. When he cleans out the fly-breeding places on his farm, he cuts down the chances of your getting part of his fly crop. Yes, it is really a community proposition. But the community expects every man to do his duty on his own place.

We used to consider flies a sort of necessary evil. Now, we know they are a danger and a disgrace.

They are evil, there's no question about that! But they are not necessary. By proper precautions you can keep them down. And you owe it to yourself and family to do it. Flies carry filth and disease germs. It is an easy thing for a fly to carry typhoid fever germs, for instance, and leave them in the glass of milk from which it seems to sip very daintily. Fact is, some folks claim the house fly shouldn't be called a house fly, it should be called the "typhoid fly."

Anyway, the presence of flies is an indication of uncleanliness, and insanitary conditions, and improper disposal of substances in which they breed. They often carry disease. They are always annoying. And now is the time to start to save yourself. I have already mentioned Farmers' Bulletin No. 1408. It is called "The House Fly and How to Suppress it." The United States Department of Agriculture will be glad to send you that bulletin if you ask for it. It takes up the subject more completely than we can in a short talk.-----(As if interrupted) How's that? ---- "How about fly traps?"

Yes, fly traps help considerably. It is always a good idea to have at least one good fly trap, properly baited, and set just outside the kitchen door. That will take care of a good many flies which might otherwise get into the house ----(As if interrupted) What say? ---- "Where would you get it?"

Why, make it yourself. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1408 will show you how to make and use a fly trap which is very effective against houseflies. Then there is a special bulletin, Farmers' Bulletin No. 734, "Flytraps and their Operation ," which tells how to make various kinds of traps and what baits to use to attract flies of different kinds.

--ooOoo--

ANNOUNCEMENT: Those bulletins are free. You can get them for the asking by writing either to Station_____ or by writing direct to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D. C. I'll repeat the numbers for your convenience in ordering. The one on "The House Fly and How to Suppress It," is Farmers' Bulletin 1408-F. The one on "Flytraps and their Operation" is Farmers' Bulletin No. 734-F.

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THE FARM FORUM Thursday, April 11, 1929

Dairy Meeting No. 28: Cottage Cheese.

ANNOUNCEMENT: Order in the Farm Forum! -- We have a number of ladies with us today. They evidently heard we were going to have a man here to tell about making cottage cheese on the farm. I never realized there was so much interest in cottage cheese ---- evidently a good many of you like it. Well, here's an expert from the U. S. Department of Agriculture.------ Go ahead, Mr. Expert.

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For the benefit of the ladies, before I begin on cottage cheese in general, I'd like to announce that the U. S. Department of Agriculture has a bulletin on this subject. It is called "Making and Using Cottage Cheese in the Home." It is Farmers' Bulletin No 1451-F. And besides telling how to make cottage cheese, it shows a lot of tasty ways of fixing it to go with salads, and fruits, and the like.

From what the Chairman said, I guess he doesn't care much for cottage cheese. There's probably a good reason for that. There is not a great deal of cottage cheese made and eaten on the farm. The reason there is not more made, is because people don't know how to make it.

That's surprising. Cottage cheese when it is properly made certainly has a delightful taste. There is a lot of nourishment in it. And just from a hard-headed business standpoint, skim milk should be used as a human food rather than as an animal food. Cottage cheese is certainly a convenient, economical way of using skim milk for human food.

Of course, you can't blame folks for not liking it if it is tasteless, or too acid. I've tasted some that was downright bitter.

High-quality cottage cheese should have a clean, mild acid flavor and a smooth texture. It should be free from lumps and the same all the way through.

You can make that kind. The flavor can be controlled by using clean, sweet skim milk and a good starter. The texture is largely a matter of careful manipulation while you are making the cheese. With good clean skim milk, clean utensils, and careful attention to details, you can make an A-1 product.

For best results, the milk should be kept cool until it is to be made into cheese. Keep it at about 50 degrees, if you can. -----(As if interrupted) ----How's that? ---- "How much?"

Well, one gallon of skim milk will make about a pound and a half of cottage cheese.

If the milk is sweet, put it in a pan and let it stay in a clean warm place at a temperature of about 75 degrees until it clabbers.

Ordinarily that will take about 30 hours. But when you want to speed up the process, you can do it by adding a little well-flavored sour milk to the sweet milk.

As soon as the milk has thickened or clabbered firmly, cut it into pieces two inches square. Then stir the curd gently but thoroughly with a spoon.

The next step is to heat the curd. Heating makes the whey separate better and helps give the cheese a firm texture. Put the pan of broken curd in hot water so as to bring the temperature up to 100 degrees. Cook at that temperature for about 30 minutes, stirring every five minutes for one minute at a time.

When you've finished the heating, pour the curd and whey into a clean salt bag or other little cheesecloth bag. Or you can just lay it on a cloth, and fold the cloth over to form a bag. Then hang up the bag to drain.

You don't want the curd to get too dry, so stop draining when the whey stops flowing in a steady stream. Then empty the curd out of the bag and work it with a spoon or butter paddle. Work it until it is fine grained and smooth and about the consistency of mashed potatoes.

You can add sour or sweet cream to make it smoother and to improve the flavor. Then salt it according to taste, using about one teaspoonful of salt to one pound of curd.

If you are not going to eat it promptly, store it in a glass or earthenware container of some kind. Don't put it in tin or wood. And if you keep it in a cold place, it will keep for several days. -----(<u>As if interrupted</u>) --What's that? ------"How about using a starter?"

Why, sure. That's a good idea. Starters tend to make your results more certain. A home-made starter is a little sour milk in which there are a lot of the acid-forming bacteria you want. When mixed with the fresh milk those particular bacteria are given a start in the fresh milk over any other bacteria which might get in.

When you make cottage cheese in quantities, however, I'd advise you to use a commercial starter from a reliable starter company or from a dairy-supply house. In fact, if milk is Pasteurized just before being used for cheese-making, it is absolutely necessary to use a good starter.

In small-scale operations, it may not always be practical to pasteurize, but pasteurization allows you to control fermentation better and increases the yield of cheese and, of course, makes it safer.

To make cottage cheese in considerable quantities and of good even quality, however, it is best to follow a more exact system than just to make a little for home use.

I'll not go into the differences here or into how to make cottage cheese with rennet. There are several advantages of using rennet. With it, you can make a finer-textured and more uniform cheese. And not only that, but you can make it in less time, and with less attention and also cut down losses of curd in the whey.

All those things are gone into quite fully in that Farmers' Bulletin I mentioned. It is Farmers' Bulletin 1451-F and is called "Making and Using Cottage Cheese in the Home."

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Anyone who wants that bulletin can get it free of charge by writing to Station ---------- or direct to the United States Department of Agriculture at Washington, D. C. Just ask for Farmers' Bulletin No. 1451-F on "Making and Using Cottage Cheese in the Home."

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THE FARM FORUM Friday, April 12, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Farm Economics Meeting No. 28: Government Crop Forecasts

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Members will please find seats. Our meeting today is for the purpose of looking into these government crop forecasts. We have a government man here, from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, who is going to tell us why we have them ----- All right, Mr. Specialist -------

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Few people will take advantage of a blind man.

But they are not so considerate of the uninformed man.

In fact, very few well-informed men will refuse to take their profits when dealing with an uninformed man.

For that reason it pays to keep posted.

Business men who buy and sell farm products every day have a certain advantage over farmers who sell only occasionally. The business men know the market better. They are in a better position to know it. Long before the United States Department of Agriculture was even organized, big buyers were able to gather crop and market information through their trade connections.

Of course, they used that information to their advantage. The farmers were worried. Too often they got the short end of the bargain. Farmers' Associations tried to collect crop information. But they were not sufficiently organized to do it well. The farmers were at a big disadvantage. Time and again they appealed to Congress to furnish a disinterested agency to collect and publish crop facts. Finally, Congress provided the fact-finding machinery and the facts were presented in crop reports.

Many farmers have not yet learned to use that machinery. ----- (As if interrupted) --- What's that----- "What good do they do?"

Well, let's look at some of the crop reports. Let's see some of the ways they are useful to a farmer.

The Government men who supply the crop and livestock reports and forecasts, study the whole field of supply and demand for the different crops. They study the supply and demand in this country and also in foreign countries. Then they give out the results of their study.

For instance, they report on the stocks of farm products on hand. Those reports show whether stocks are bigger or smaller than usual. That may suggest which way the prices are going. With those reports, you can decide whether to sell now or later, or whether the early planting of the next crop should be big to meet a developing shortage or whether it should be small on account of a heavy carryover.

Then there are the reports of farmers' intentions to plant; such as the report we had about three weeks ago. From that report you can see whether the plantings in prospect are likely to be too big or too little for the demand for the different crops. If you use your head and adjust your plans with an eye to what others are planning to do, that report may mean real money to you.

Then there are the estimates of the acreage actually planted. Those estimates coupled with the figures showing the average yields to the acre, show what the probably production will be --------- (As if interrupted) What did you say? ------- "Can that do you any good?" ----- Yes. --

Even if your crop is in the ground, you still have some control over the size of the crop to be marketed. You may cultivate more intensively or you may cultivate less intensively. Or you may decide to use the crop differently as a result of knowing whether the supply will be big or little. You may decide to harvest more for grain and less for forage. You may harvest or hog it down. You may sell your crop or feed it to livestodk.

Another advantage of dependable reports on supply is that they help establish and keep up a fair price. Speculation largely results from uncertainty, but dependable reports reduce the uncertainty. They also allow the industry to adjust itself to the size of the crop, and they help in moving big crops and in conserving small crops.

Or take some of the livestock reports. Estimates of the number of livestock on hand show whether the supply is keeping up with the increases in population and the probable future demands.

For instance, reports of the number of heifer calves and 2-year-olds being kept for milk helps a dairyman to avoid raising too many or too few milk animals. Reports on the numbers of sows bred help breeders decide whether it will be advisable to market some of the animals or hold them for farrowing. Reports of pigs born not only show the probabl e supply for market but also the probable demand for corn for feeding.

The supply is the chief thing on which prices depend. Prices change mainly according to changes in the supply. The supply, of course, depends upon a number of things. It depends largely on weather. That, of course, is out of your control. Insects and diseases affect the supply, and you can control them; partially, at any rate.

Such things as changes in crop acreage, in the proportion of your land in each crop, in the intensiveness of cultivation, and in the way of using the crop are all within your own control. So also are the numbers of your livestock and their increase, and within certain limits, the volume of their product.

The trouble is that most farmers fail to use their power of control in the right way. I dare say there are even a few men here who plant according to the way the crops paid last year or the year before. You forget that all that goes up is bound to come down.

Successful farmers, however, use foresight. Foresight is reversed hindsight. That is, we go back and look forward. We study the movements of prices and the things which have affected them, up to now, and then try to figure how those things are going to affect prices in the future.

Much of that figuring is done for farmers in these crop reports and estimates. And those reports not only help the farmer directly with his crop plans, but they help him indirectly in a number of ways. The crop and livestock estimates are the eyes of agriculture. They permit the whole industry to see where it is going instead of traveling blind. ----- (As if interrupted) What's that? --- "Help the buyers and the railroads too?"

Yes, certainly. They enable the railroads to provide a proper distribution of cars to move the crops. They enable manufacturers to send their wares to sections where they are needed. Yes, it also helps the buyer. The basis of a fair trade is that the buyer and the seller should be equally well informed. The reports make fair trading possible.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Next Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday we will have Farm Forum meetings as usual. We are going to talk about some interesting things. Don't miss a meeting.

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THE FARM FORUM Monday, April 15, 1929.

Livestock Meeting No. 29: Breaking Colts.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- I said -- order!! --- You are not a bunch of young colts --- If you act like them, we have a horse trainer here today to take you in hand. He's from the U.S. Department of Agriculture; and if you'll all find seats, he's going to give us a few tips on training ------- All right, Mr. Trainer, go ahead --- how do you train a colt?

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Well, you want to remember, there are two sides to a colt.

You have to train both sides.

A colt may get used to seeing something on the near side with the near eye. Then the first time he sees the same thing on the off side with the off eye, he may get badly scared. Driving him in right and left circles is a good way to train him against that.

But whenever two of you are working with a colt, both of you stay on the same side. Then if he plunges and kicks, there is less chance of either of you getting hurt. With both of you on the same side, the colt's attention is then undivided.

Never go near the colt without first getting his attention. That's the first rule of horse training. Get his attention. The second thing is to make him understand what's wanted.

Of course, you all know, a horse does things largely on account of habit. So the idea is to establish good habits. What a horse has once been trained to do, he will nearly always do under the same conditions.

The education of a colt is based on reward and punishments. The reward, such as a pat on the neck and the like, should be given immediately after he does what's wanted. The punishment, to be effective, must immediately follow the act of disobedience.

Few horses are naturally vicious. But from some of the things I've seen some men to to horses, I'm not so certain about some horse trainers.

To train a horse successfully, you have to use a lot of patience, and gentleness, and firmness. Use patience, but don't use it up. If you get out of patience, if you lose your temper, put the horse back in the stable. Working a horse when you are in a temper is worse than useless. It may undo the work you have already done.

And never work the colt after he is tired. Being careful about that will prevent his getting stubborn and make him obey better. Be careful also not to overload a young horse. Overloading is apt to cause balkiness. Punishing him for something he can't do, will also cause balkiness. -------- (As if interrupted) What's that? ------ "When would I start breaking him?"

Well, the sooner you begin the better. It is a good plan to break a colt to lead before he is weaned. Then break him to harness when he is from two to three years old.

If the foal has been properly handled, it shouldn't be hard to break him to stand tied and to lead. While he is tied, the colt should be gentled and made used to being handled on both sides. and on the hind parts, and on the legs. To do that, hold the headstall in one hand and with the other hand pet and rub the colt first on the neck and head, then on the back and sides, and last on the legs. Don't be afraid, but don't take any unnecessary chances with a colt.

The more handling the young colt gets the easier it will be to teach him to lead. In doing that, use diplomacy rather than force. Don't try to pull the colt straight ahead. Instead, step to one side and in front, give a command and pull sharply on the rope. Use the same word for the same command every time. You may need an assistant with a buggy whip to help emphasize the command. But don't use the whip after the colt moves when he is commanded to move. Even if he moves only a little way, give him a pat and a kind word.

And remember this, don't try to do too much at a time. Short lessons often are much better than occasional long ones. Keep up the short lessons until the colt leads freely.

Now if you are breaking a suckling colt, just tie him to the mother's trace when she is being worked. Make the tie at about the union of the back band and trace and make it short enough so the colt can't get in front of the team.

In that way he will get used to the general conditions and noises that go with the work. But, as I said, make the lessons short, and keep up that practice only until the colt is broken to lead.

You can also save a lot of trouble for yourself in the future, by getting the colt used to having his feet handled and trimmed before he is weaned. There would be fewer cracked hoofs and badly shaped feet or interfering and "paddling" horses, if the young colts' feet were properly cared for.

Now after you have broken the colt to lead, you should get him accustomed to harness and train him to rein. Never hitch a horse to a wagon or ride him, before you break him to drive in harness; that is, before you have trained him to go at command, and to stop when he hears "whoa" and to rein to the right and left, and to back up.

How to do that, as well as how to make the different ties, and how to handle the colt at all stages of the training, is explained fully in that illustrated bulletin issued by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. You can get one free of charge by merely writing for it. ----- I gave you one there, Mr. Chairman -------- What's the number of it?

"Thirteen sixty-eight?" ----- Did you hear that? The bulletin is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1368-F. It is called "Breaking and Training Colts."

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ANNOUNCEMENT: You can get that bulletin by writing either to Station --------- or by writing direct to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D.C. Ask for Farmers' Bulletin No. 1368-F, on "Breaking and Training Colts."

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 1) Wednesday April 17, 1929

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 29a: Durum Wheat

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- Today we have with us a market specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture. He is going to tell us about the durum wheat situation. Although most of the durum wheat is grown in the northern great plains, this wheat specialist tells us that the situation at least has its interest for other parts of the country -----

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Yes, because of the relatively high price of millfeeds, farmers may feed more durum this season. And a bigger part of the crop than usual will probably be used by mixed-feed manufacturers.

As the Chairman said, there is a lot of durum wheat being raised in this country now. You know, durum wasn't raised much until about 1900 when U. S. Department of Agriculture brought in from Russia the varieties which are now most popular. Durum wheat growing is practically limited to the northern Great Plains and upper Mississippi valley. Most of it is grown in the four States of Minnesota, North and South Dakota and Montana.

Durum wheat grows better or is a surer crop there than red spring wheat. For that reason, it seems to have been gaining in popularity right along. In 1917 only about 2,400,000 acres of durum were harvested. In 1922, the amount seeded to durum had reached 5,800,000 acres. And last year a record acreage of 6,711,000 was harvested.

You understand, durum wheat is the best wheat for making macaroni. Along with the increase in durum wheat growing has gone a big growth in American macaroni and spaghetti manufacture.

Up until a few years ago, Italian macaroni manufacturers supplied the United States with most of the macaroni and spaghetti used in this country. In recent years, however, not only have our American manufacturers supplied most of the macaroni and spaghetti used here, but they have gone into foreign markets and competed with French and Italian manufacturers on their own ground, as it were.

Yet even with the big increase in the American manufacture of flour for macaroni and spaghetti making, it is not nearly enough to take care of our big durum wheat crop.

It is too early now to say for certain just what will become of all the durum this season. But using last season's distribution as a basis, it seems that from 15 to 20 per cent of the crop will be taken for domestic milling.

Last season, the principal mills grinding durum wheat used about 15,000,000 bushels and some durum was probably used by other mills. Our mills in this country prefer the best quality, high protein, bright colored amber durum. Usually they pay a good premium for that kind of wheat. This year No. 1 amber durum with 13 per cent protein and good color is bringing 10 to 25 cents more a bushel than the ordinary No. 1 red durum, which is being taken mostly by mixed feed manufacturers.

All right, let's figure that the mills in this country will take 15 to 20 per cent of the crop. We can also figure about 40 per cent will be shipped to foreign countries from present indications. Shipments for export so far this season are bigger than for the corresponding period last year when total exports amounted to nearly 35,000,000 bushels. ------- (As if interrupted) What say? ------ Yes, I did say that shipments so far are bigger -----

But we can hardly expect very much expansion in the export takings of United States durum. The reason I say that is that production of durum wheat is also increasing in Canada. That Canadian durum will compete directly with our durum wheat in foreign markets. Not only that, but we must meet competition from wheat grown in North Africa, and from native wheats in Italy. At present Italy is our best customer for durum. Recently, however, Italy increased the duty on imported wheat. That may further restrict our export trade with Italy.

France uses large quantities of durum wheat, but France gets most of her supply from the French protectorates of North Africa. That North African wheat is admitted duty free, whereas United States exporters must pay a duty. So you see there are some substantial obstacles to the expansion of our foreign outlets for durum wheat.

After taking out enough for domestic milling and allowing for exports a little bigger than last season, however, we still have from 40 to 45 per cent of the crop to dispose of, or account for. What will become of that wheat?

Well, a large percentage of it, probably nearly two-thirds of it will be used by mixed feed manufacturers, as I said in the beginning. Trade reports show that about 25,000,000 bushels of durum wheat are now being used every year for feed. Most of that is used by the mixed feed manufacturers. But farmers may also feed more of the lower priced durum this season because of the relatively high price of millfeeds.

There is usually considerable wheat carried over from one crop to another. Some of that may be on farms, and some in country elevators, and the rest in store at the terminal markets. Two months ago market stocks of durum were materially larger than at the same time last year.

From here, it seems probable that the carryover next August may be somewhat bigger than usual, unless more durum wheat is taken for milling or other purposes than now seems probable.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: The subject for discussion tomorrow will be the sterilization of dairy utensils, and Friday we will consider spring planting of trees. Then next week, you should all be on hand at every meeting; for next week will be the last week of the Farm Forum this season.

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 2) Wednesday, April 17, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 26b: The World's Corn Crop

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- I guess all you men here raise some corn. Most of you raise a lot of it. But there is so much corn in our own fields that we can't get a picture of the crop as a whole. Today, however, a corn market specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture is going to furnish us that picture. ----

* * * *

Yes, when you ride hour after hour past one corn field after another, you may think we raise enough corn in the United States for the whole world.

And we do raise a big crop of corn. Last year, we raised nearly three billion bushels of corn. The bulk of that was used for grain. Some, however, was used for silage and some was hogged down or used for forage.

But, surprising as it may seem, even with the tremendous crop we grow, which is several times bigger than the crop of any other country, we use 98 per cent of our crop right here at home. Fact is, most of our corn never leaves the farm --- until it leaves in the form of livestock for market.

There are no really accurate figures on the subject, but the common belief is that about 85 per cent of all the corn we grow is disposed of by feeding animals, and comes to market in the shape of meat.

Using 98 per cent of our corn here in one way or the other leaves us just 2 per cent to export.

Now, in Europe, corn growing is largely confined to southern Europe. Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia are about the only countries which produce more than they need at home.

But outside the corn growing countries of Europe, the folks generally don't think of using corn for human food. In northern Europe, however, they use a lot of corn both for industrial purposes and for livestock feeding. For instance, the British Isles import a good deal of corn, using a good bit of it for feeding poultry. Denmark, due to the big dairy business there, is also a heavy user of corn. Holland takes a lot of corn for distilling purposes. All in all, there are 42 countries which import some corn.

And it is rather startling that their imports have been growing in recent years. From a little over two hundred million bushels in 1924, those imports increased to more than three hundred and fifty million bushels in 1927, the last year for which we have the complete figures.

That is our export market for corn. In that market, our chief competitor is the Argentine. As I said, we export a very small part of our corn crop. And while we grow nearly three billion bushels, whereas the Argentine grows less than eight hundred million, the Argentine exports more than half of all the corn she grows. European buyers prefer Argentine corn to ours, and are willing to pay more for it than they do for ours -------(As if interrupted)----- What's that? --- "Why do they prefer Argentine corn?"

Well, you understand, there is a big difference in the looks of corn grown in North and South America. Instead of the big, wide, flat kernels of corn which we are used to seeing here, the Argentine corn kernels are much smaller and harder, and usually have less moisture in them. For that reason, they ship better and keep better. They are also a little sweeter than our corn. Those differences probably account for the preference of European buyers for the Argentine corn.

So you see, United States exports of corn depend a great deal on the corn situation in the Argentine. In fact, the extent to which United States corn will move to Europe this summer and fall depends practically entirely on the Argentine situation.

Just what that is, is hard to say. Dependable figures on the situation in the Argentine are sadly lacking. The new crop Argentine corn will start to move the first of May, and unofficial guesses put the exportable surplus of Argentine corn at two hundred and thirty-six million bushels this year, compared to two hundred and thirty-nine million bushels of the old crop.

Up to the first of March of this year, the exports of United States corn, on the other hand, were running around twenty million bushels more than last year. Whether that keeps up for the rest of the year is the big question as far as exports are concerned. Some think that it will. Others say not.

Anyway, we know from official estimates that stocks on farms in this country are bigger by around seventeen and a half million bushels than last year. And the latest figures on stocks of corn in from 39 principal terminal markets of the United States show that the supply is accumulating slowly week by week and now amounts to something over thirty-eight million bushels.

So, assuming that country elevator stocks are just about the same this year and last, apparently we have used around thirty-three million bushels less corn since the first of November than for the first four months in the previous crop year. But as I said, whether the outmovement of United States corn keeps up at the same rate, depends largely on how much corn the Argentine will have for export.

* * * * *

ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will sterilize the dairy utensils. Friday, we'll see what we can do to protect the woods from burning; and then Monday, we will consider making the livestock immune to infection. That is the subject for the first day of the last big week of the Farm Forum this season.

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THE FARM FORUM Wednesday, April 17, 1929.

(Region 3)

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 29c: Uses for Cotton Seed

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- We used to have no use for cotton seed. But there have been some wonderful changes in farming and the use of farm products in the last few years. For that reason, we've asked an expert from the U.S. Department of Agriculture to tell us about some of the different uses for cotton seed ----- All right, Mr. Specialist ----------

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That's right. There have been some wonderful developments in the use of cotton seed.

Some of you here may even remember when cottonseed was almost a total waste. Fact is, cottonseed was not just good for nothing. It was a downright liability.

There was not only no use for cottonseed after the cotton had been ginned off, but each season such enormous quantities accumulated around the gins, that it was quite a job to get rid of it.

Why, the question of getting rid of the cotton seed became so serious, that several of the cotton-growing states passed laws regulating its destruction. That was to prevent the pollution of the streams and to preserve the health of the community.

But times have changed. Nowadays, the cotton seed crop is worth several millions of dollars a year. Nowadays, between 75 and 80 per cent of all the seed produced are used for something besides planting the next crop of cotton . ----------

How did cotton seed get that way, you say? ---- Well, of course, there was the oil. That was the first thing they found a use for. Back in 1860, however, there were but seven little oil mills in the whole country. The combined crush of all seven of those little mills amounted to only a few thousand tons of cotton seed. The machines were very crude and the oil was the only thing considered worth anything.

That was 1860. Today, there are over five hundred cotton seed oil mills in the Cotton Belt. Some mills now crush more than 20,000 tons of seed for oil in a season. Not only that, but every part of the cotton seed is used.

Let's visit one of those oil mills. Many of you have, but you won't mind going along with us. You can go along and help point out what happens to the cotton seed.

In the first place, when the cottonseed get to the oil mill, they are stripped of what fiber is still clinging to them. Linters is the name given to this fiber. The linters used to be thrown away with the seed. Now, however, the mills salvage about a million 500-pound bales of cotton linters a year.

The linters, which used to be thrown away, mind you, have become so important that the United States Department of Agriculture recently established standard grades by which to classify them.

During war times, most of the linters are used to make gun-cotton. That gun-cotton is mixed with nitro-glycerine to make cordite. Cordite, you know, is a powerful explosive; but one that is easy to handle. Linters have other uses than making explosives, peaceful uses. The highest grade of linters is used for absorbent cotton, for surgical dressings, and for new skin. The wounds in war made by linters, in one form, explosives, may be healed by linters in another form.

But Peace hath her victories no less than war. During peace times linters of the higher grades are used for spinning or to make cotton felts for mattresses and comforters. Other grades are used to make smokeless powder, writing paper, and photographic films. They are used to make the backs of my lady's mirrors, hair brushes, and combs. Yes, cotton linters are used to make that tough, transparent covering that you often see on the candy boxes the other fellow sends your girl. Cotton linters are also used for rayon for her dresses, and stockings, and under-things.

Fact is, the uses of cotton linters are increasing so fast, it is hard to keep up with them. Unless some new use has been devised since I agreed to come here and talk to you, the latest new use into which chemists are converting linters is as sausage casings.

But so much for linters. Let's get back to the oil mill and see what becomes of the cottonseeds themselves.

After taking off the linters, the hulls and kernels are separated. As you may know, those hulls are used largely as cattle roughage. But each year more and more of them are being treated to get off the last vestige of fiber, before the hull bran is released for cattle feed. Cotton seed hulls have potash and carbohydrates in them, so the chemists are likely to find ways to use those too.

Now then, after disposing of the linters and hulls, we get down to the kernel of the oil mill business. The kernels are cooked and ground so the oil will run more freely. Then they are put in hydraulic or other types of heavy presses which squeeze out the oil.

That leaves a hard board-like cottonseed oil cake. Every year the United States exports about a half million tons of cotton seed cake to the great dairy sections of north central Europe. But we keep much more of it at home to feed dairy cattle in this country. Some of the cotton seed cake, ground up to corn cotton seed meal, is refined and made into flour for human food. The poorer qualities of the meal, rich in nitrogen, are

used as fertilizer to grow more cotton and other crops.

That brings us to the oil itself, which is the most valuable of all the valuable constituents of the cottonseed. Crude cotton seed oil is sometimes used for lamp oil. Refined cottonseed oil is often used as a delicious, wholesome salad and cooking oil. It is used for the same purposes as olive oil.

In a hardened form cottonseed oil is used as a vegetable lard. By another process, it is made into a tallow for candles. The poorer qualities of the oil are used in making soaps and glycerine. The glycerine may be used to make the explosive called nitro-glycerine.

In refining the cotton seed oil, some disagreeable smelling stuff is left. And from that stuff, delightful perfumes, tars, and roofing compounds and a number of other useful things are made.

So you see that every part of the cottonseed, every part of this nuisance-creating waste of seventy-five years ago, has many valuable uses. From the once-useless cotton seed, marvels of usefulness have been developed.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will take up the question of sterilizing the dairy utensils. Friday we'll consider the protection of the woods. Then next Monday we'll start on our last Farm Forum week this season by looking into the possibilities of making livestock immune from infection.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 4 and 5) Wednesday, April 17, 1929

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 29d: High-Grade Alfalfa.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- The demand for high-grade alfalfa hay is getting bigger. But some of us have found trouble in making high-grade alfalfa, so we've asked this expert from the U. S. Department of Agriculture to tell us how it is done. ---- All right, Mr. Specialist -------- How are we going to meet that demand, anyway?

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To make high-quality hay of any kind, you need a vigorous, pure stand. That's especially true of alfalfa. Pure, thick stands of alfalfa have fine stems and are very leafy. That's the best kind of hay for feeding dairy cattle.

Yes, the first thing is to grow pure, thick stands of alfalfa. When the stand begins to thin out, break up the alfalfa meadows. Grasses and weeds spread into thin alfalfa. And that cuts down the feeding value of the hay.

Keep your hay meadows clean of weeds and trash, because weeds and trash detract from the looks of the hay and lower its feed value. In the spring each year, you should rake the meadows to get out the old stubble and the spoiled hay from last year's crop. Rake the meadow after each cutting to clean up the scatterings of hay.

To make high-quality alfalfa hay, however, you not only need to keep up a pure stand, but you need to cut it at the right time. By the right time, I mean when it is about one-fourth in bloom or when the new growth has started from the crown. You'll get little, if any, more tonnage by letting it stand longer.

Yes, cut the alfalfa before it starts to mature and shed its leaves and lose much of its protein feed value.

Having grown a pure, thick stand and cut it at the proper time, the next thing is to prevent too much weather damage.

Of course, you can't always prevent damage by rain while the hay is in the swath, or windrow, or cock -- no matter how well you manage. There is no way to dodge an unexpected rain that falls on hay just before it is stored away. But you can cut down the chances of that sort of damage. Watch the weather reports closely. Plan haying accordingly. Then, too, you reduce the losses of quality from rains, or heavy dews and fogs by cutting at the right time and then handling the hay with modern machinery in the fastest and best way.

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In making alfalfa hay, always aim to get the most leafiness and color. Of course, you have to consider how to dry it fast, but don't sacrifice leaves and color to save time in curing. To keep the leaves on alfalfa hay you have to handle it when it is a little tough. The most practical way to prevent leaf shattering during the hay curing is to allow some of the moisture to evaporate while the new mown hay is in the swath. Then rake it into windrows while it is still tough and before the leaves are easily shattered. Then complete the curing in side delivery rake windrows or in cocks -----(As if interrupted) ----Yes? ---- "How long?" ----- You mean, how long should it be left to cure in the swath?

Well, of course, that will vary with the tonnage of the hay to the acre, and with the temperature, and with the sunshine, and the wind and amount of moisture in the air. The condition of the hay should determine how long. The hay should be well wilted before raking.

I use a side delivery rake for raking wilted hay. A side-delivery rake lets you aerate and cure the hay without any more handling, unless the hay is rained on. In that case, you can turn the windrows neatly and easily with a side-delivery rake. And there will be less shattering of leaves and less loss of green color from bleaching in the windrows than if the hay is cured in the swath or in the wide, flat windrows made with a dump rake. The side-delivery rake also makes it easier to gather the hay with the loader.

Now, as for storing the hay, there are a number of ways of storing alfalfa. Some folks stack it. Others store it in bales.

One way is to stack from the original windrows or bunched windrows with sweep rakes or hay sleds. Another way is to bunch and cock the hay, and then stack it; carrying the cocks to the stacks with sweep rakes. Still another way is to load wagons from the windrows with the hay loader; and then haul to the barn or stacks and unload with slings or forks.

There are also two ways of gathering the hay for storing in bales. Some folks bale direct from the windrows; using hay loaders and wagons or sweep rakes to move the hay from the windrows to the press. Others bunch and cock the hay and then bale from the cocks with a portable baler. ---- (As if interrupted) Yes? ------ What's that? ---- "Which is the best way?"

Well, that depends on conditions and the size of the fields and the labor you can get. It is possible to make high-grade alfalfa in any of those ways. Baling directly from the windrows is popular with many producers of market alfalfa in both dry and humid country, because it saves extra handling of loose hay, saves storage space, and sometimes lets you rush the hay into an early, under-supplied market.

The chief trouble in producing high-grade alfalfa by the windrow method, however, is that of getting the hay to the baler in the best condition for baling. Hay needs to be drier for baling than for stacking to avoid losses from bale sweating and heating. But if you wait to get ideal conditions in a big field, some of the hay will overdry and shatter. If tough hay is baled it is very likely to heat and hold.

You can control the condition of the hay at the time of baling to some extent by regulating the quantity of hay cut down and windrowed according to the capacity of the press.

In the West North Central and Rocky Mountain States stacking alfalfa directly from the windrow or cock before the hay is overdried is usually best. In that way, you can store large amounts of hay in a short time.

Storage of alfalfa hay in stacks also allows the hay to pass through the sweat before baling. Some of the highest grade alfalfa produced in this country is put up in big stacks and allowed to sweat before baling.

As a help in producing high-quality alfalfa, I recommended Farmers' Bulletin 1569-F. It is a new bulletin issued by the Department of Agriculture and tells all about it. You can get it free.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Just a moment, please! You can get that bulletin by writing either to Station_____ or by writing direct to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D.C. Just ask for Farmers' Bulletin 1569-F on "High-Grade Alfalfa."

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THE FARM FORUM

Tuesday, April 16, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Poultry Meeting No. 29: Producing Market Eggs of Good Quality

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Members will please find seats! -- I take it that none of us want to produce bad eggs. We don't even want to produce poor quality eggs --- but a lot of things seem to happen to our eggs before they get to market. For that reason, we've asked this Egg Expert from the U. S. Department of Agriculture to tell us the secret of producing good quality eggs -----

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There's no secret to it, Mr. Chairman --- Producing fine-quality eggs is merely a question of collecting the eggs promptly, handling them under good conditions, and getting them to the consumer while they are fresh.

But, as you say, there are big losses in producing eggs for market. At least one egg out of every dozen produced on general farms is unfit for food, before it reaches the consumer.

And that's not all. There is a big loss from eggs which are usable, but which have depreciated in quality ------- (As if interrupted) What say? ----- "If they use them, where's the loss?" ---

Well, if you'll think a minute, you'll see how that is. The sale of so many low grade eggs lessens the demand for eggs. That tends to lower egg prices. ------- But I'm not here to tell you how bad eggs are, but how you can make them better.

As you probably know, the value of eggs is affected a great deal by the size of the eggs. For that reason, use in your breeding flock only those hens which produce good-sized eggs. Always guard against small sized eggs. Never lose a chance to get rid of hens which lay little eggs. Never use little eggs for incubation ------- (As if interrupted) What's that? ----- "What size should they be?"

Well, the standard size of eggs is 24 ounces to the dozen or 2 ounces to the egg. Eggs which weigh less than 22 ounces to the dozen are poor market eggs. Use your little eggs at home. They tend to lower the value of all your eggs wherever eggs are bought on a graded basis.

Keep healthy, vigorous hens of a standard variety. Well-bred hens not only lay more eggs than mongrels, but the eggs are bigger and more nearly alike in color and looks. Those things count in market eggs.

During hot weather, gather the eggs at least twice a day and keep them in baskets in a cool, well-ventilated place. Eggs get bad fast in hot weather, so keep them as cool as possible. The nests are usually hot and the eggs are heated by hens laying and setting on them. Get the broody hens off the laying nests promptly.

And another thing, keep the eggs where the air is fairly dry. Dampness tends to cause eggs to mold. A cool pantry or a well-ventilated cellar or cave is usually the best place to keep eggs on farms until they are marketed.

Provide a nest for every four or five hens and keep plenty of clean material in the nests. Sawdust or shavings added to the straw in the nests helps produce clean eggs. Clean floors and clean yards are a big help also. Keep plenty of clean litter on the floor. Make every effort, in other words, to produce clean eggs. Dirty eggs are poor eggs for market.

In very wet weather, better keep the hens in the houses until noon, so as to keep down the number of dirty eggs. Another good idea is to put three-quarter-inch mesh wire netting under the roosts. -------(As if interrupted) ----- What say? --- "What about washing?"

Why, washed eggs spoil quicker than dirty eggs. Washed eggs that go into storage don't keep well. No, no. Never wash market eggs during the spring months when eggs are going into storage. Keep any dirty eggs for use at home if possible.

The best eggs for market are infertile eggs. The germ in a fertile egg will start developing if the egg is kept at a warm temperature. That means a poor-quality egg. Yes, it will start at anything over 68 degrees. Of course, the warmer it is, the faster it develops, and if that keeps up long enough the egg will develop a blood ring. That will make it unfit for food.

To produce infertile eggs, keep the roosters out of the flock. Sell off the roosters, or eat them or pen them up by themselves as soon as you no longer need eggs for hatching.

Fact is, with this present tendency of buying day-old chicks instead of hatching your own, many of you don't need to keep roosters in your flocks at any time. If you sell off the young cockerels as soon as they get to broiler age, you'll be better able to produce infertile eggs in the late summer and fall. And there's nothing improves the quality of eggs more than producing infertile eggs. That is a very simple remedy. ----- (As if interrupted) Yes --- Oh, yes, feeding most certainly does affect the quality of eggs.

Feed the hens some grain at all seasons of the year. Don't force them to fill up on grass. And see that they have limestone or oyster shell handy. Lack of limestone or oyster shell in the ration tends to cut down the number of eggs and to boost the proportion of cracked eggs. Use the cracked eggs at home while they are fresh. They don't have much market value. They represent a big loss to the egg business.

When you have a large number of eggs, grade them for size and color before you market them. Keep the pullet eggs by themselves in the early fall, too. They are much smaller than hen's eggs. Always remember that little dirty eggs bring down prices on the entire lot of eggs.

Market promptly. And if possible, sell to a dealer who buys on a graded basis and does not pay the same price for all eggs, regardless of quality. Remember holding eggs lowers their quality, so market them at least twice a week. Three times a week is better during the summer.

And when going to market, protect the eggs from sun and rain. Heat and dampness are the two biggest factors in the spoiling of eggs.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow is our regular crop day. Thursday, we'll discuss the sterilization of dairy utensils. And Friday we'll get in the woods and see what we can find. This time next week, we'll talk about eggs again. At that time, we have an expert here to tell us where they fit in the diet.

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THE FARM FORUM Thursday, April 18, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Dairy Meeting No. 29: Sterilizing Dairy Utensils.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Dairymen will please give attention! --- This specialist here from the U. S. Department of Agriculture tells me that one of the commonest causes for the production of low-grade milk and cream is utensils that haven't been sterilized. I agreed with him that using unsterilized utensils is frequent -- even if it is not general. However, I've asked him to tell us a practical way to sterilize dairy utensils ----

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There are two practical ways of sterilizing. One way is to kill the bacteria with heat. The other is to kill them with some chemical. Both work well, when they are well done.

When you use heat, better use it in the form of steam. Steam the utensils until the temperature gets up to 200 degrees. Keep it there for at least five minutes.

If your dairy has a steam boiler, you can do the steaming very simply and very effectively in a cabinet which hasn't any cracks in it. If your boiler is big enough, you can raise the temperature of the sterilizer and the utensils in it to the temperature of boiling water in a few minutes.

Put such utensils as cans, and pails, and bottles in the sterilizer upside-down. They will heat quicker inside that way, and the condensed steam will also drain better. In big sterilizers, it is a good idea to have slatted shelves and racks. They save space and help the steam to circulate.

Of course, you know, steam rises; so the steam should be let in at the bottom of the sterilizer. Drying coils, that is, closed coils into which the steam flows, are a big advantage in a sterilizer. If you use them, you should provide dampers at the bottom and top of the sterilizer, so as to let out the steam and moisture before drying begins.

But unless you dry the utensils in the sterilizer or unless you expect to use them shortly, you should take them out as soon as they are cool enough to handle. Turn them up-side-down in a protected place and let them drain, and dry. That will make them last longer by preventing rust, and

will hold back bacterial growth. --------(As if interrupted) ------- Well, did you have a question? -----"Suppose your dairy is not equipped with steam boilers?"

In that case, you can make a good sterilizer of a galvanized iron box. Any good tinsmith can make it for you. It won't cost much. You can put it on a foundation which will serve as a fire box, or you can put it on any kind of stove.

Just put the utensils on a perforated false bottom in that galvanized-iron box with a little water in the bottom. Then fire up until the water boils and the temperature inside the box is the same as that of boiling water for a few minutes. And don't just guess at the temperature. Have a hole in the lid of the box where you can stick a thermometer. Any time you use steam, always use a thermometer to make sure you get the right temperature. Operated that way, a galvanized-iron box sterilizer works very satisfactorily.

You can get blueprints of box sterilizers free of charge by writing to the Bureau of Dairy Industry, of the U.S. Department of Agriculture at Washington, D.C. They also have free blueprints for sterilizing cabinets for use with steam boilers.

During the past few years, sterilization with chemicals has come into use. Some preparation of chlorine is usually used. A solution of one part available chlorine to 5,000 parts water is strong enough to give practical sterilization with a fair margin of safety. The solution should be used only once, however. And before the utensils are put in the chlorine solution, they should be thoroughly washed.

Yes, thoroughly washed. The utensils must be clean, if the sterilizing solution is to be effective. Remember, organic matter, such as milk or dirty wash water on the utensils makes the sterilizing solution ineffective. That's because the chlorine or other sterilizing agent combines with the organic matter, and leaves very little chlorine to kill the bacteria.

But regardless of how you sterilize, whether with chemicals or with steam, clean the utensils first. And in cleaning use a brush. Never use a rag. Before any dairy utensil goes into any sterilizer it should look clean. Not only that, but it shouldn't have that greasy feel.

After the utensils have been used, they should first be rinsed in cold or lukewarm water. Rinse them promptly, before the milk has had time to dry on them. That will save a lot of work later.

If you fail to rinse promptly, the washing water gets dirty quickly; gits filled with bacteria and unfit for use.

After rinsing, put the utensils in the washing water, which should be about as warm as your hand can stand it. To every 10 gallons of water add about four or five pounds of a good alkali or soda-ash washing powder. Of course, the quantity will depend on the kind of powder used and on the hardness of the water. Don't use soap or greasy powders in washing milk utensils.

When they are scrubbed with a brush until they look and feel clean, they are ready for the sterilizing process.

Of course, in all this washing process, I'm supposing you have used pure water. If you expect to produce safe milk, you must have pure water. The first requisite for clean utensils is that the water should be of unquestioned purity. By unquestioned purity, I mean water which has passed a laboratory test for purity. The fact that the well or spring itself is far away from sources of contamination and is well walled in and curbed and tightly covered does not insure a safe water supply. The water may be polluted from contamination due to underground drainage.

Use pure water, wash the utensils thoroughly, and sterilize them completely. Although utensils may have been well washed and look clean, they are not really clean until they have been sterilized. Today the dairies with clean, sterilized utensils are usually in the lead. It pays to sterilize.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Blueprints of box sterilizers as well as sterilizing cabinets for use with steam boilers are mailed free upon request by the Bureau of Dairy Industry, of the United States Department of Agriculture. Send your request either to Station -------- or direct to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D.C.

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THE FARM FORUM Friday, April 19, 1929

(Regions 1 and 2)

Forestry, Meeting No. 29a: Spring Tree Planting.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- The tree expert from the U. S. Department of Agriculture is here. He is ~~going to tell~~ us how to plant, and what to plant, and why to plant, trees on idle lands. He says it is a good investment ---- but I'll let him tell you what he thinks about it ---------- and about what trees you should plant ---- All right, Mr. Forester ------

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Of course, in choosing the kind of tree to plant, it is a good idea to consider what trees grow naturally and grow well in your neighborhood. Also consider what trees have the best market.

Generally speaking, one-year-old hardwood seedlings, and two or three-year-old coniferous seedlings or transplants are the best class of stock for planting.

Most States distribute nursery stock for woods planting on the farm at prices ranging from $1 to $10 a thousand, although some States don't make any charge for farm planting stock.

However, if the State Forestry Department doesn't distribute any of the stock of the kind you want, you can get it from a commercial nurseryman. The U.S. Forest Service, at Washington, D.C., will give you a list of the nurseries which handle stock suitable for forest planting.

I'm glad to see some of you are thinking about tree planting. Planting forest trees on the waste rough parts of the farm is getting to be quite a popular way of boosting farm values. When you consider the relatively small cost for tree seedlings and for labor, tree planting is a good investment.

Why not plant trees on that barren hillside? As it is, it is producing nothing but a lot of gullies and mud after every heavy rain. Or maybe, in your case, you have a few unused corners and pieces of idle land that are bringing in no income. Or maybe there are open stops of no value now in your farm woods.

You have to pay taxes on those idle acres. But they don't bring in anything in return. Put that land to work. Many kinds of timber will grow on lands too poor to pay in food crops. ---------- (As if interrupted) All right --- you on the end seat there ------- Did you have a question? ---- What? ------- "How close should trees be planted?"

Well, of course, the spacing of the trees depends on the kind of tree, and the kind of ground. Generally speaking, the closer the spacing, the better. Close spacing means straighter trees with fewer branches. Ordinarily, a spacing of six by six feet is satisfactory. With that spacing, you can have 1200 trees to the acre.

When you get trees from the nursery, they usually arrive in bundles, wrapped in burlap or heavy paper, with the roots packed in wet moss or some other water-holding material. In handling the stock, please remember, it is absolutely necessary to keep the roots moist all the time.

Handle the seedlings as quickly as you can. Keep them watered and out of the sun as much as possible. If you take enough care to keep them wet and don't break the roots, you can plant them directly from the bundle, as you get them from the nursery.

Or you can carry them in a bucket with the roots in water or in thin mud. But, if for any reason, you have to hold seedlings over for several days, you can spread them out and heel them in against the sloping side of a shallow trench, with their tops sticking out and the roots well covered by thoroughly packed and watered earth. And be sure that trench is in a shady place. Then do your planting during damp or cool or wet weather.

Here is the way to plant: ------ Before setting the tree in the ground, scrape away the sod and weeds for a space a foot or more square. After that, dig a hole big enough to accommodate the roots when they are well spread out.

Now you are ready to set the tree. Set the seedling in the hole with the roots spread out naturally. Pull in a little of the top soil and pack it down firmly with your hand. Then pull in more soil until you fill the hole up to ground level. Then firm it with your heel.

After that, draw a shallow layer of soil around the tree and leave it loose to act as a mulch. But don't pull loose trash, or grass, or weeds around the roots. You can't pack that kind of stuff tightly. It you have it around the roots, it will cause them to dry out and the tree will die as a result.

All this may sound like a slow, detailed, hard job. But it isn't really. As a matter of fact, it is very simple. One man and a boy, or two men working together, can plant from one to two acres of land in a day, once they get the "hang of it."

It is important, however, to do the job right. The success of trees, as is the case with many other things that are planted, depends largely on the kind of start they get.

Where the soil is loose or sandy and free from rocks, you can plant the seedlings successfully, by setting them in wedge-shaped slits or clefts made with a spade or dibble. Drive the dibble straight into the ground, then press down to make the slit. After the seedling is placed, you can close the slit by driving the dibble in the ground about

four inches away and pressing backward, and then forward. Finish off with a thrust of the heel to pack the soil.

But don't make the slit by working the dibble back and forth. That's no way to do it. That makes the bottom of the slit so big that you can't close it easily. That will result in the roots of the tree drying out.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Next week will be the last week of the Farm Forum meetings this season. Next Monday we will talk about making the livestock immune to infection. Tuesday, we discuss the value of eggs as food. Wednesday, we'll discuss the sugar beet leaf spot. Thursday, we'll point out some of the government services to the dairy industry. Friday we will wind-up the week and the season, by talking about the comparative standards of living in the town and in the country.

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THE FARM FORUM (REGION 3) Friday, April 19, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Forestry Meeting No. 29b: Woods Burning and How to Stop it.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Order, please! -- I want you to get these figures. Ninety-nine per cent of the forest fires in the South are started by men, either on purpose or carelessly. Just what that means to us, and how we can stop it, will now be explained to you by this forestry specialist from the U.S. Forest Service -------

* * * * * *

Every person here has some influence on some one in this community. I beg all of you to use that influence to help stop woods burning.

Woods burnings make forest land unproductive. It is a drain on the wealth of your community. Do everything you can to prevent it. ------- (As if interrupted) What? ----- "What can you do?"

Well, as I said, use your influence to make folks see that it doesn't pay. There are laws against it in most places. And the time is coming when uncontrolled woods burning will be outlawed everywhere.

It is generally believed that fire warning signs help prevent fire. You can usually get a few such signs from your State Forestry Department. Post them along the road adjoining your property. If you are troubled with fires caused by hunters, or fishermen, or campers you may have to put up signs forbidding the use of your timber land for such purposes. A well kept fence tends to increase respect for property rights. In many communities, it actually cuts down fire losses to a considerable extent.

You may find it necessary in some cases to build fire lines or fire breaks parallel to the road or the railroad right-of-way or between your land and adjoining property in order to prevent fires getting into your woods. Fire breaks are also used to split up the woods into small tracts; so that if the fire gets started, it won't burn far before it runs into a fire break. -------(As if interrupted) Beg pardon? ----- "How big should it be?"

Well, a single clean plowed furrow is often enough to stop a slow-burning surface fire. However, for hotter fires, or fires burning in a strong wind, you need a wider line. Better plow several furrows if you think the fire break will

be needed for bad fires. Or you might plow two furrows a little distance apart and burn over the ground between. That makes a good fire break.

Narrow fire breaks which will not by themselves stop a forest fire in a strong wind can often be used as a safe starting point for a back fire. You know, a back fire is set from a safe line or break and is allowed to burn against the wind until it meets the main fire. By that time, it has burned over a wide enough line to stop the main fire.

In actually fighting a fire that is once started, the most important rule is to get at the fire when it is small. Many of the State Forestry Departments and many private forest owners are building lookout towers so they can locate fires before they get too big to handle. If you have one of those in your neighborhood, you're lucky. And, of course, if you have a telephone, you have a better chance of being notified if any of the neighbors detect fire on your place. This fire business is a thing neighbors should work together on. ----- (As if interrupted) How's that? --- "How would I fight the fire?"

Well, for any fire that can be whipped or beaten out, a fire swatter or even a pine top works well.

In many parts of the South, a broken-off pine top is the favorite weapon for fighting fires. It works very well in grass and light litter. The "fire swatter" is an improvement of the same general idea. It is a homemade tool made by fastening a light, tough five-foot handle to one end of a section of old rubber belting. A section of belting about 20 inches long and 12 inches wide makes a good swatter.

But, of course, if the fire is burning in a deep layer of leaves and pine needles and duff, the pine top or swatter won't do the work. In that case, you'll need to rake or dig a line in front of the fire right down into the soil -- until the soil shows. Unless the wind is strong enough to carry it across, the fire will die out when it hits that line of soil. ----- Did somebody ask "how wide?"

It takes good judgment to decide that. Sometimes a very narrow trench will be enough. At other times, you need a very wide line. In order to make the line wide enough, you may even have to back fire.

But, please remember, back-firing is dangerous. Be very careful that the back-fire doesn't get out of hand.

In digging fire lines or trenches, there are a number of tools you can use. Rakes, hoes, shovels, potato hooks, mattocks, and turpentine hoes are all used. But whenever you can use a plow, that's the best tool of all. The important thing is to get a line down to the soil in the shortest possible time. When you've done that, go back around the fire and make it safe by improving your line, putting out fire in stumps, logs, or snags that are near enough to the line so that sparks or burning embers may blow across. We call that job of making a fire safe after it has been surrounded with a line, "mopping-up." Water is a big help

in that mopping-up, especially if you have a hand spray pump. A few gallons of water in one of those pumps will put out a lot of fire.

If you get at them soon enough, you can handle most fires yourself. The trouble is that we don't always get to them soon enough. The most economical way of getting help, when help is needed, is by one neighbor helping another. You help your neighbor fight fire on his land and he helps you.

And if you have a State Forest Fire Warden or Ranger in your neighborhood, get in touch with him. Find out how you can work together in fire prevention and fire suppression.

Remember, the small investment in time and money it takes to protect your woodland from fire will pay you big dividends.

* * * * * *

ANNOUNCEMENT: Next week is the last week of this season's Farm Forum meetings. But be sure to be on hand for all five meetings. Monday, we'll talk about making livestock immune to infection. Tuesday, we'll talk about eggs. Wednesday, we'll discuss soybeans and cowpeas. Thursday, will be dairy day. And Friday, we will wind up the series of meetings with a discussion of the comparative standards of living in the town and country.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 4 and 5) Friday, April 19, 1929.

Forestry, Meeting No. 292: Fire Protection.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- We have with us today our old friend, the Forest Ranger. He has a word of caution for us. Especially, for those of you who are going camping or motoring through the National Forests this spring and summer. ---- All right, Ranger, what's the good word?--

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This is about the time of the year, when Forest Rangers look at themselves in their mirrors. They look and wonder just how many more gray hairs they'll have at the end of the season. They crowd in all the extra sleep they can, for they know they are likely to miss a lot this summer------

All that, is because some folks don't seem to realize that forests are not made of asbestos. Forests are not the place to be careless with fire. Every year some of the thousands of visitors which flock to the National Forests get careless with their campfires or their tobacco. They let a forest fire get started. That may mean thousands of dollars damage and a long siege of back-breaking work by scores of men before it is out.

Of course, the National Forests are there for our folks to use --- but not to abuse. As representatives of the U. S. Forest Service we're glad to welcome you to the Forests. The Government has spent a lot of money to improve camps, and build roads, and make the Forests comfortable for you. But for goodness sake, please get the idea out of your head that forests are fire-proof! Be careful with fire in the forests.

In our Western States, there are just two main causes of fires in the forest ---- lightning and the human race. In most localities human carelessness causes the most fires and the most serious ones.

The trees themselves show that. They keep a record of fires. Fires make scars on the trees. As the tree grows, those scars show in the annual growth rings of the trees. Fire scars in the annual rings of the giant Sequoias of California, for instance, show that fires occurred here as long ago as the year 245 A.D.

However, the tree records also show that since the advent of the white man in the West, there have been more fires than there were before. Today, the fast growing industrial developments in the mountains and the motor cars bringing inexperienced travelers in the forests, make the danger worse.

Yet at the same time that the danger from fire is growing worse, the need for the forests is growing greater. The population is growing, and growing fast in many sections. Industries dependent on forests, such as water power and irrigation, and grazing, and lumbering, are increasing in value.

For that reason, the Forest Service is continually improving its fire-fighting. We are extending firebreaks, and roads, and trails, and telephone lines. We are cleaning up areas where there is brush or other material not worth much and a big danger as food for fires. We are studying the causes of fires and the best way to fight them. We are improving the look-out systems and airplane patrols. Recently, we have started experiments looking to the possible use of radio in fire protection.

But in spite of the best efforts of the Forest Service and its cooperators, some fires get pretty bad. California had a bad season last year.

In 1910 a number of fires got loose in northern Idaho and western Montana. Hundreds of fire fighters were in the hills trying to check the spread of the flames. On the evening of August 20, the wind sprang up and the fires broke all bounds. Flaming brands were picked up and carried from crest to crest of the ridges. The problem of the fire-fighters became one of how to save themselves. In spite of all they could do, and in spite of many real acts of heroism, 80 lives were lost. The city of Wallace was nearly wiped out. Many small mining towns and lumber camps and homesteads were completely destroyed. Altogether, more than 2½ million acres of forest were destroyed.

That shows you what may happen from a fire in the forest. But every big fire was a little fire to start with. Sometimes it is a lighted match tossed carelessly into dry litter. Sometimes it is a camp fire left smouldering. Sometimes it is a cigarette butt thrown from a passing automobile. Some fires may be unavoidable, but none of those kind. And every person who goes into the forest is responsible for the careful use of fire.

So while you are loading up your car for your summer camping trip, stick in an axe and a shovel. Some of the National Forests require that every camping party admitted to the forest to carry an axe and a shovel as fire protection.

A shovel is one of the handiest fire-fighting implements. If a little fire gets started, you can scrape a trail around it. You can throw earth back on an advancing fire to stop its spread. Then you will need a shovel to scrape the ground clear around your campfire. You will also need it to bury camp refuse. Never go away and leave the campfire burning when you break camp. That may mean trouble for you or for the forests.

It is a good idea to have an ash receiver on your automobile. Many fires are started by cigarette stubs or matches thrown out of cars along the road. Have an ash receiver. Put them in that. In California, it is against the law to throw burning tobacco or matches out of the car.

Do your part to save the forests from the great red menace.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Next week is our last Farm Forum week this season. All of you be on hand for the five big meetings next week. Monday we are going to talk about making livestock immune from infection. Tuesday will be poultry day as usual. Wednesday we'll discuss the sugar beet leaf spot. Thursday will be dairy day, and Friday we will close the Farm Forum with a discussion of the comparative standards of living in the town and in the country.

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THE FARM FORUM Monday, April 22, 1929.

Livestock Meeting No. 30: Making Livestock Immune to Infection.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! ---- Today our veterinarian from the U. S. Department of Agriculture is going to point out a few facts about how livestock may be protected from disease through proper vaccination ----- All right, Doctor --------

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Vaccination, as now practiced, practically originated on the farm back in the late seventeen hundreds.

That is, at about that time, the girls working on the dairy farms in old England made one of the fundamental discoveries on which modern vaccination is based. The Turks and others had practiced a sort of vaccination before that, but some English farm girls are credited with being the first to notice that after anyone had had an attack of cowpox, they were immune to an attack of smallpox.

Presumably of course, one girl told another, and pretty soon the idea was well broadcast. Doubtless some folks said it was all hooey, or words to that effect. But Dr. Edward Jenner of Sudbury was one of those fellows who did not believe that everything worth while had already been found out. At that time 600,000 people throughout the world died every year from smallpox, so Dr. Jenner thought he'd try the thing out.

One of his patients was a milkmaid affected with cowpox, so he took some cowpox lymph from a place on her hand and he vaccinated little 8-year-old Jimmy Phipps with it. The Doctor had his nerve and so had Jimmy! But that wasn't the half of it. A few weeks later, Doctor Jenner again inoculated little Jimmy Phipps with the lymph from a virulent case of human smallpox. And - Jimmy didn't get the smallpox. That started vaccination for smallpox. Now, where vaccination is practiced, smallpox is almost an unknown disease.

Yes, vaccination for human smallpox was widely practiced for more than 50 years before any thought was given to the possibility that vaccination might also be used for other contagious diseases either among humans or animals.

Along about 1850, Pasteur, the French scientist, whose name we use in the word pasteurize, got busy with his microscopes and test tubes and made a series of world-astonishing discoveries, about bacteria.

Among other things, Pasteur, about 1879, discovered that weakened cultures of chicken cholera bacteria injected into chickens protected them against attacks of chicken cholera.

Then too, on a little farm again, mind you, Pasteur gave his famous demonstration of vaccination against anthrax in sheep. With a big crowd looking on, he inoculated some sheep, with a protective vaccine. Then some days later he inoculated those sheep and some others with anthrax. On a day set in advance, he came back to the farm. So did the crowd. And just as Pasteur had predicted, the sheep which had been first vaccinated were alive and thriving, while those which had not been vaccinated were dying from anthrax.

We haven't improved much on that vaccine of Pasteur. But we have been trying hard to do it. All anthrax vaccines are more or less dangerous, however. They should be used only by a well qualified veterinarian after permission from the State veterinarian or the State livestock sanitary board. But when there is valid reason to vaccinate for anthrax; don't delay having your animals vaccinated.

Hog-cholera immunization is one of the outstanding valuable practices for the hog grower. By the so-called "double-treatment" you can permanently protect your hogs against cholera. However, be careful how you do it. Everything considered, it is best to have a practicing veterinarian not only give the treatment to the hogs or pigs, but also to keep an eye on them for a few days to see that everything is going all right. You can even immunize suckling pigs. And it pays to do it, for it doesn't cost so much while they are small.

Another important vaccine used in this country is the blackleg vaccine for blackleg or blackquarter of cattle. And you probably know blackleg vaccine is used in millions of cases every year. It does the work and does it well.

Probably the most generally popular vaccines will be those for distemper in young dogs. In this matter of vaccines, however, we might as well say in the beginning that 100 per cent efficiency has never yet been attained and probably never will be.

As you all know, vaccination against rabies has been practiced for many years, both in human and veterinary medicine. Until recent years, treatment for rabies in animals was confined to animals bitten by mad dogs. It is well to remember, however, in all this vaccination business for rabies that the sooner the treatment is started after exposure the better are the chances for good results.

When properly used, vaccines for shipping fever of animals work probably better than most vaccines. In this connection, however, it is well to bear in mind that animals do not become protected as soon as they are vaccinated. If you expect to ship animals, have them vaccinated ten days before time for shipping. Vaccinations used during shipment are practically worthless as insurance against loss <u>during</u> the shipment. The fact is, they may even be a detriment.

There are also vaccines used for roup and chickenpox and for udder troubles in cattle.

The point is, however, that the vaccination method has proved efficient in many livestock diseases, and we are constantly seeking more and better vaccines as one of the most certain ways of checking the spread of many animal diseases. Today many scientists are following in the footsteps of Drs. Jenner and Pasteur in order to save money for farmers.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will take up the question of What's in a good egg. Wednesday will be the last of our regular crop and soil meetings, Thursday, we will point out a few services available to dairymen. And Friday we will have the last of our Farm Forum meetings this season; closing with a discussion of the standard of living in the country compared to that in the town.

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THE FARM FORUM

Tuesday, April 23, 1929.

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NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Poultry Meeting No. 30: Eggs in the Diet.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- About this time of the year, eggs are plentiful. Of course, we all use eggs a good deal; but if everybody realized what valuable food eggs are, a lot of folks would eat more of them. For that reason, we've asked this Dietitian from the U. S. Department of Agriculture to tell us a few things about eggs as a food ----------

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I don't want to sing the praises of the egg.

The hen has already done that.

And you will have to admit, the hen has a right to feel proud. She produces a perfect product in a sealed container. If it is not perfect when the consumer gets it, it is not the hen's fault. Either you producers or the market men are to blame. It is up to you to see that you get the eggs to market in prime condition.

It is good business to do that. The number of eggs eaten depends a lot on the quality of the eggs. There is a big loss to the poultry business in general just on that account. Too many poor quality eggs are marketed. I'm glad to say, however, there has been a big improvement along that line. The eggs that reach the table, and the kitchen, and the bakery are better now than a few years back ---- on the average. But there is still room for improvement.

And remember by improving the quality of eggs you market, you can help increase the use of eggs. And by doing that, you will not only help your business, but you will be doing a favor to the egg eaters.

Eggs are a sealed product, the contents of which have never been contaminated by hands. They are a complete food, a healthful food, an easily digested food, and an economical food.

Someone has called eggs "Sealed sunshine." That's what they are, and they are especially valuable for people who spend most of their time indoors. Eggs are now being fed to children to prevent rickets. That is,

eggs in the child's diet, serve the same purpose as cod-liver oil, as a substitute for lack of sunshine in the winter time.

Yes, the vitamins in eggs make them stand out as one of the best foods for children. Eggs are rich in vitamins A and D. As you know, those two vitamins are needed for growth, and for the prevention of certain eye troubles, and for the proper development of bone and teeth. Eggs also contain vitamins B and C. They contain vitamins A, B, C, D, all of which are important for growth and health. ----------(As if interrupted) Yes? -------- "After they are cooked?"

Oh, yes. The rickets-preventing vitamin in eggs is not hurt by cooking. Neither is it affected by cold storage. Eggs are true "sealed sunshine".

Like meat, eggs are high in protein. Like milk, eggs contain most of the essentials for growth and restoration of body tissues.

What's in an egg? ----- Let's just consider that question a moment. As I said, eggs rank very high as a source of vitamins. They are rich in protein, fats, and minerals. That is, they are rich in the food values we need.

The yolk of the eggs contains about 16 per cent protein and the white contains about 12 per cent protein. You see, eggs are much like other animal foods, such as meat, cheese, and milk. They should be used with cereals or vegetables to make a well-balanced diet.

Three of the most important minerals in the diet, phosphorus, calcium, and iron, are well supplied in egg yolk. The iron in eggs is an ideal source of iron for the blood. Adding eggs to a good diet for a child improves his health and enriches his blood. Eggs also have sulphur in them, as you may have noticed from the discoloring of your silverware. But that sulphur is valuable in food, nevertheless.

I know it may sound like I am just talking up eggs. But you can readily see why the egg is such a complete and finished food. Nature makes eggs to produce baby chicks. So she provides a complete food in a sealed package.

And not only are eggs a complete food. They are easily and quickly prepared. And what's more, they can be eaten day in and day out without spoiling the appetite. Hundreds of thousands of folks in this country eat eggs for breakfast throughout the year. And whether they are eaten raw or cooked, eggs are almost completely digested. They are especially useful in the diet of invalids and children. Office workers find eggs especially good, because they are concentrated food and are more completely digested than most foods.

There are a lot of ways of eating eggs. Eggs can be coddled, or boiled or poached or shirred or fried. They can be served as omelets, souffles, escalloped, or stuffed eggs. And there is probably no other food material which has so many uses in cooking as eggs.

At this season of the year when eggs are at their lowest prices, they are one of the cheapest foods you can get, considering the food value. Prices have a big effect on the number of eggs eaten. In the United States an average of about 240 million dozen eggs are eaten in a month's time. The number runs up to 300 million dozen eggs a month in the spring, but falls to 180 million dozen in the fall and early winter. There is a big chance of increasing the number of eggs eaten, however. That can be done by sending better eggs to market.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow is crop day in our Farm Forum. Thursday is dairy day. Friday we will wind up the week and the season of Farm Forum meeting with a discussion of the comparative standards of living in the town and country.

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THE FARM FORUM (Regions 1, 2, 4, and 5) Wednesday, April 24, 1929.

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Crops and Soils Meeting No. 30a: Sugar Beet Leaf Spot.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! ----- The Plant Doctor is here now. We asked the U. S. Department of Agriculture to send him to tell us about the leaf spot disease of sugar beets. I understand the leaf spot disease occurs in all sugar beet growing sections in this country, so maybe he can tell us how to keep it down around here --------How about it, Doc? --------

****

Well, we're working on a promising way of controlling leaf spot on sugar beets. We are breeding and developing strains of beets to resist the leaf spot. New strains have been bred and are being given severe tests under epidemic conditions.

But those tests haven't gone far enough yet. They haven't been carried on long enough to justify recommending any of those strains for commercial growing.

Until we have developed and proved the value of strains of sugar beets to resist attacks of the leaf spot disease, we can best fight leaf spot, by deep fall plowing and suitable crop rotation and by dusting the plants with fungicides, such as suitable mixtures of copper sulphate and lime.

Dry dust mixtures of copper sulphate and lime or four or five applications of Bordeaux mixture have been successful in controlling leaf spot. The dusting method is relatively very cheap insurance against damage and losses. That's especially true, where leaf spot is a menace to the crop every season.

--------(As if interrupted) What say? ---- "Leaf spot doesn't kill the beets?"

Sometimes, but very seldom. But it does seriously retard their growth. It reduces the size and weight of the beet roots and the sugar in them. If the leaf spot attacks the beets before the roots are well grown, they don't develop properly. That cuts down the yield.

If the attack doesn't last, the beets develop new leaves, and even if the size of the roots is small, there may be a satisfactory quantity of sugar in them at harvest time. On the other hand, an attack after the roots are well developed doesn't have much effect on the size and weight of the roots, but it cuts down the sugar in them considerably. So you see, no matter whether the leaf spot attacks the plants early or late, it will cut down the yield of sugar per acre.

If leaf spot attacks the beets early and the attack keeps up until late in the season both the tonnage and the sugar will be very much cut down. The damage may be so great that the crop will be practically a complete failure.

Then, in many sections, beet tops are used for feed. They are a valuable stock feed, too. So you see, where the tops are used that way, there is an additional loss. The leaf spot reduces the quantity and feeding value of the leaves.

Yes, sir, leaf-spot causes direct losses in the decreased production and feeding value of the beet tops, in the decreased tonnage of beets to the acre, and in the decreased amount of sugar in the beets.

Of course, the amount of the losses in any one season depends upon how severe the leaf-spot attack is and how long it lasts. Losses also depend a great deal on the time the beets are attacked and the weather conditions afterward.

Attacks are more liable to occur during hot, wet weather. In hot, wet weather, leaf-spot usually spread through a field and spreads fast. Cool, dry weather has a tendency to check the trouble, but with each change to favorable weather for it, it is liable to break out again. It may keep that up all through the growing season.

That is, it may if you don't prevent it by dusting or spraying. Deep plowing and crop rotation cannot be used to check the disease in a growing field of beets. -----(As if interrupted) How's that? ----"How is it spread?"

You understand, of course, the leaf-spot disease is caused by the microscopic spores or seed of a fungus or mold-like plant. Those little spores are easily carried from one beet to another by the wind, or water, or insects, or farm animals, or farm implements, or dirt knocked off the harvested roots. Those spores stay in the soil and on weeds and trash in the fields. They live over from season to season.

For that reason, leaf-spot is liable to attack crops of beets grown in later seasons. Then too, sugar beet seed often carries the spores of the fungus. In that way, new areas where leaf-spot has never been before are often infected. -----(As if interrupted) What say? ---------- "How can you tell it?" ----

Well, the first signs of leaf spot are tiny, almost white, spots. But those are so small you can hardly find them on the leaf, when you are looking for them. They get bigger, however, and form the brown-colored almost round spots which are the first easily noticed sign of the disease. The edges of those spots are often reddish or reddish-purple, but as they get older they take on an ashy-gray color.

The spots show up first on the older leaves. If conditions are right for spreading, they soon cover the older leaves and spread to the younger ones! The spots get bigger, and spread over the leaf. Finally, the whole leaf turns brown and dies. As the older leaves die off, the leaf-spot disease attacks the younger leaves. New leaves are formed at the center of the crowns. The crowns finally lengthen out and take on a high cone-shaped appearance.

The dead leaves usually hang on to the crowns. If you have ever seen a field of beets severely attacked by leaf-spot, you know what a sorry sight it is; with those rows of elongated crowns each surrounded by masses of drooping, brown colored, dead leaves.

By proper control measures, however, you can protect yourself from that kind of losses. By deep fall plowing, suitable crop rotation, so as to prevent reinfestation from spores in the soil from previous attacks, and by dusting the plants with mixtures of copper sulphate and lime, you can keep leaf-spot under control in your beet fields.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow's Farm Forum meeting will be given over to a discussion of some of the different services now provided for dairymen by the government. Then on Friday, we will have the last meeting of the season, at which time we will compare standards of living in the town and in the country.

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THE FARM FORUM (Region 3) Wednesday, April 24, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Crops and Soils Meeting No. 30b: Soybeans and Cowpeas.

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- This is the last week of these Farm Forum meetings this season --- Today, however, we've called on this Crop Expert here from the U. S. Department of Agriculture to settle the argument as to which is best, soybeans or cowpeas --- What do you say to that Mr. Specialist? -----

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Soybeans or cowpeas, eh? ---

Well, I'd say it is not a question of which is the better crop.

In deciding which to plant, you want to consider what you expect to use the crop for, and how it fits your soil and climate.

There's no question but that cowpeas succeed under much different conditions from soybeans. Cowpeas are also better than soybeans for soil improvement on the poorer types of soil.

On the other hand, cowpeas are very sensitive to cold; whereas, soybeans can stand considerable frost, both in the spring and in the fall.

Then too, soybeans are better than cowpeas for hay, and soilage and silage, because soybeans grow upright and have a higher feeding value. Cowpeas are viny plants. That makes them harder to harvest and cure. As a grazing crop for hogs in later summer and fall soybeans are much more generally used than cowpeas. And, as for seed production, the soybean has a lot of advantages over cowpeas.

For instance, the yield of seed is much bigger in the case of the soybeans. Soybeans mature all the seed at one time, and can be easily handled by machinery.

Of course, machinery can be used to advantage with cowpeas, but most cowpea seed are gathered by hand. Both cowpeas and soybean seed are first rate feed for farm livestock. And soybeans offer a valuable home-grown concentrate to supplement corn in feeding hogs and cattle --- (As if interrupted) "Not used for human feed," you say?

Yes, that's true. Cowpeas are used much more extensively for human feed than soybeans. But there is no reason why soybeans shouldn't be used for human food. Fact is, they are being used to some extent. And more and more as time goes on. And soybeans are really a more nutritious food, and they can be used in more different ways than cowpeas.

And, in addition to their value as feed, soybean seed are valuable for their oil and oil meal. Yes, as an oil seed, there are big possibilities for soybeans in the South. Soybeans can furnish you farmers with a cash crop and give the cottonseed oil mills another source of raw material to lengthen the season of oil crushing. ----- (As if interrupted) What's that?----- "Varieties?"

Oh, yes, there are a number of varieties ----- I'm glad you brought that up, too --- In order to get the most out of soybeans or cowpeas either, it is very important to use the very best varieties. At the present time, there are about fifteen varieties of soybeans and about twenty varieties of cowpeas being handled by growers and seedsmen. It is easy to get them mixed up, so you should be sure to buy seed from reliable sources only.

The variety, of course, should be one that is suited to your local conditions. You should also consider what you expect to grow it for. Some varieties are better suited to one purpose, while others are better for something else.

In selecting a variety of cowpeas consider its habit, its resistance to disease, its yields of forage and seed, and its time of maturity.

The most valuable varieties of cowpeas for forage are the Whippoorwill, Iron, the New Era, and the hybrids of those three, known as Brabham, Victor, and Groit. Such varieties as the Black, and Clay, and Red Ripper and Unknown and Wonderful are not so valuable and are not so generally known as those others.

In case your soils are infested with wilt and nematodes, you had better use the Victor or the Brabham or the Iron. For table use, such white-seeded varieties as Conch and Cream, and the blackeyed sorts such as California, Virginia, and Extra Early Blackeye and some of the crowders, as May Crowder, and White Crowder are preferable. ------- (As if interrupted) Yes? ----- Oh, I beg your pardon, it was soybeans you were asking about.

Well, for forage you'll find Laredo, Otootan, Goshen Prolific, Old Dominion, Virginia, Chiquita and George Washington are suitable. Laredo is highly resistant to wilt and nematode diseases, so it is especially valuable for sections where there is such trouble as that.

Now for feed or as a cash crop for the oil mill, I'd suggest such varieties as Mammoth Yellow, Tokio, Dixie, Southern Prolific, Haberlandt, Herman, and Hollybrook. You see, the oil and oil meal manufacturers prefer those yellow-seeded varieties, not only because they have more oil in them but because the meal or flour made from them looks better.

Now for pasture or silage, beside those varieties, you might use such varieties as Biloxi, Tarheel Black, and Mammoth Brown ------- (As if interrupted) What's that? ----- "What variety for food?" --- For human food, you mean?

Well, Easycook and Hahto have been found valuable for human food, either dry or green ----- but if you want to know about soybeans, I'd suggest that you sit right down and write for Farmers' Bulletin No. 1520-F, on "Soybeans." You can get it free from the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

And they also have a bulletin on the culture and varieties of cowpeas. That one is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1148-F.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: I've been asked to repeat those bulletin numbers. The one on "Soybeans" is Farmers Bulletin No. 1520-F. And the one on "Culture and Varieties of Cowpeas" is Farmers' Bulletin No. 1148-F. You can get either or both by writing either to Station _____ or by writing direct to the U. S. Department of Agriculture at Washington, D. C. They are government publications prepared especially for you, and may be had for the asking; while the supply lasts.

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THE FARM FORUM Thurs. April 25, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Dairy Meeting No. 30. 30: Keeping Track of the Dairy Business.

ANNOUNCEMENT: THE FARM FORUM will be in order! -- Tomorrow will be the last of this series of meetings. Today, however, we are going to hear from a representative of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. He is going to tell us of the business helps the Department maintains for dairymen.

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Your business, the dairy business, is a big business.

Think of all the dairy farms scattered throughout this country. Think of the creameries and condenseries and cheese factories. Then follow all the milk and cream and the butter and the cheese to market. Think of all the big markets for dairy products and cold storage plants which handle dairy products. Yes, and other countries besides ours are in the dairy business. Some of those countries produce butter, and cheese, and milk which may compete with our dairy products.

You can readily see that keeping track of such a vast business is a tremendous job. Yet that is one of the jobs which is being done by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. In order that you men in the dairy business can have the information you need to produce and market your stuff on a paying basis, the Bureau operates a widespread organization to gather and report facts about the supply and demand for dairy products in this and other countries.

The dairy market news service has a central office at Washington and eight field offices, located at New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Minneapolis and Plymouth, Wisconsin, for gathering the dairy market facts. These local field offices secure reports each day from railroads, cold storage warehouses and dealers in the markets regarding receipts, supplies on hand and trade movements, and this information is interchanged between offices by means of the leased telegraph system used. From local offices the information is sent out by telephone, radio, and mail.

That is just an example of how the daily dairy market service is carried on. The Bureau provides many other services and many different kinds of information of value to the different people interested in the dairy business.

Among other things, the Bureau estimates the amount of butter produced in the entire country; makes a survey of production on dairy farms; provides standards and inspection for butter and cheese; reports the cooperative marketing of dairy products; issues a monthly review showing the dairy situation as a whole; and once a year, in its outlook report, points out the prospects for the next twelve months.

Of course, you know, the thing which determines the amount of milk produced is the number of cows being milked, but still more important is the matter of volume of production per cow. There are only minor changes in the total number of cows but the increases in milk production have been larger.

Some 20,000 farmers are now reporting to the Department the first day of each month, the number of milk cows in their herds, the number of cows milked, and the quantity of milk produced. From those reports tentative estimates of milk produced in the different States are being prepared.

Then the Department of Agriculture also makes and publishes annual estimates of the number of cows and heifers, 2 years old and over kept for milk, and the number of heifers 1 to 2 years old kept to become milk cows.

Very complete monthly reports from all the factories making dairy products are collected and published quarterly and annually. These reports give total production in the country. Specialists study these figures in connection with the imports and exports and storage holdings and are able to tell whether or not the consumption of dairy products is being maintained throughout the year. In this way it is possible to inform the dairymen and the markets so that they can operate intelligently.

The consumption figures indicate the possibilities for marketing and the production figures indicate the progress in expansion of the industry.

But production and marketing in this country is not all that the Bureau keeps track of for the benefit of the dairy business. Prices in this country are at times influenced by production and consumption in the rest of the world. At times, in spite of the tariff on butter, foreign butter comes into the United States markets to compete with our own butter. So in order for American dairy interests to keep track of the foreign situation, the Bureau maintains a reporting service covering the leading foreign markets.

And, in addition to the regular reports, special investigations are made of important phases of foreign competition, and prices. For instance, a recent study showed that the cost of production of butter in far away New Zealand is very low compared to our costs. Yet the cost of transporting butter from New Zealand to New York is little more than the cost of transporting it from Wisconsin to New York. And it is probably less than the cost of transporting butter from North Dakota and Minnesota to New York.

Then too the Bureau is now making a comprehensive survey of the trend in the world's dairy production and a study of the conditions governing production in foreign countries.

In other words, the Bureau is trying to keep track of the entire dairy business of this country and the world in all its phases in order that you may have the information you need to plan your dairy business. That service is yours for the asking.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: Tomorrow we will have the last meeting of the Farm Forum this season. All of you be on hand, and bring the wife and children and tell the neighbors about it; for the meeting tomorrow will be a community meeting. We will have a discussion of importance to each of you, not as individual farmers, but as members of your farm community.

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THE FARM FORUM

Fri. April 26, 1929

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Farm Economics Meeting No. 30: A Big Enough Farm Community

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! --- This is our last meeting this season. At this meeting, we are going to ask you to think about your neighborhood and your community as a whole. To start the discussion, we'll first hear from Dr. C. J. Galpin of the U.S. Department of Agriculture -------- All right, Doctor------ How can we get the advantages of town and still stay in the country?

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I am here today to utter to you a solemn truth, about how to reduce the discriminations against the farmer. I am here to tell you how to bring civilization, with all its blessings, a little closer to the farm.

It is all summed up in the doctrine; - "Know the principles governing human relationships in the building of farm communities just as thoroughly as you seek to know the principles underlying good farming."

For twenty years now, the human side of farm life has been the object of much study and research, alongside the study of production, marketing, farm credit, and farm management. Farmers nowadays are not frightened by the idea of science in wheat-raising, or potato raising, or cotton-production or hog production. They believe in knowing those crafts clear to the bottom. They know that that is all that that scare-word "science" means.

But many of the same farmers who believe in science in growing crops just naturally scout the idea of science in human relationships. They are inclined to laugh at the idea that communities can be purebred or scrub; can be full-grown or dwarf; can be pest-free or parasite-ridden. Yet such is the case. And which your community is all depends upon whether your community has been developed and has grown up according to the underlying principles which govern the cultivation of human relationships in group life; or whether your community has simply been allowed to

shift for years like a flock of untended chickens.

In the first place, we must get rid of the notion that these principles of human relationship are second nature to us. We must get rid of the notion that we know them already, either by instinct, or by long experience. Farmers used to think that the dairy business was second nature to the farmer. But they learned differently. There was a good herd; here was a poor herd. Yet the good herd could become poor; and the poor, good. It was a matter of the farmer knowing just how to bring up good herds.

That knowing exactly how was the science of dairying. The farmer must now convert himself, as he converted himself to modern dairying, to the science of community life. He must learn exactly how good communities grow and grow better and keep good. Let me illustrate:

A community must be large enough. It must have people enough in it; families enough; farms enough; property enough.

A basic principle of modern community life demands that any group of farm families setting itself up as a community to carry on the basic matters-- the enterprises and institutions which every family must have, but which no family alone can provide for itself-- must have people and property enough -- people to fill the enterprise or institutions, and property to support them. As the single family is too small to make a school, or a church, or a municipality, or a highway district; so a little group of farm families is, in like manner, too small. Not children enough for the school. Not people enough for the church. Not persons enough for a local government. Not property enough to support them adequately.

That principle of "volume" of human beings to make a modern farm community is obvious. Yet many farmers apparently take their small inadequate communities as an unchanging decree from Heaven. Each of those farmers knows that a farm can be too small to operate as a modern business. So he sets about getting a large enough farm. He knows he must have horses enough, and machinery enough, and stock enough to run his farm. He does not sit down and waste his life over a too-small farm. Why does he accept a too-small community? The science of human groupings for certain purposes demands a change from the too-small to the large-enough community.

The question is, how make the change? It may be a matter of state law, and so a change in the state law is necessary. Here is where the farmer needs an expert adviser. As he has advisors on his soils, and wheat, and flax, and corn, and oats, and hogs, and cattle; so he needs an advisor on an adequate community -- community parasites, community diseased conditions, community growth, and community relations to towns

and cities. I foresee the time when the discussion of whether "our community is large enough to carry modern institutions" shall be as common in the United States as discussion over the price of wheat or cotton.

The forces of unintentional discrimination will continue to work their will upon the modern farmer as the forces of intentional discrimination worked their will upon the ancient farmer, so long as the farmer confines his science and his precise knowledge to the growing of crops and animals.

Do you suppose that the steel industry, the banking industry, the railroad industry, the public utility industry confines its science to steel, or money, or rails, or waterpower? Oh no. Those industries are as much at home in the psychology of man, in the precise movements of groups and classes of men, in the motives which bend men, in fact in the whole checkboard of human relationships as in their particular industries. That is why they have power. That is why they are so often in the public mind.

Because the farmer takes the human factor into account so little, is one great reason why he is so continually at a disadvantage in the game of life. But the farmer can change all that. He, too, can know the things that move men. He can know what to depend upon in groups. He can, in a measure, control human life as he has learned to control, in a measure, plant life.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: This program concludes the series of Farm Forum meetings which have been held five days a week during the past thirty weeks by this Station in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture. On behalf of the Department and of Station _____ we thank all of you for your interest. We'll welcome suggestions as to the type of program of farm information you prefer for next year's series.

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THE FARM FORUM

Thursday, March 28, 1929.

NOT FOR PUBLICATION

Dairy Meeting No. 26: Cooperative Marketing in the Dairy Business

ANNOUNCEMENT: The Farm Forum will be in order! -- Dairymen will please find seats. -- Those of you who are in cooperative associations may want to know how cooperative marketing of dairy products is coming along -- Today we are going to get some inside information. The market specialist from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, here on my right, is going to tell us what the co-ops are doing -----

--ooOoo--

Mr. Chairman, that's a big order you've given me.

The co-ops are doing a tremendous business these days. They seem to be growing all the time.

It may surprise some of you to know that about one-third of all the creamery butter and cheese manufactured in the United States is handled by cooperative associations. Not only that, but 40 per cent of the fluid milk used in the cities is now handled by cooperative associations.

In fact, there are a number of big fluid-milk marketing associations which do a business running into millions of dollars a year. One large co-op, which does business mostly in New York City, sold over $82,000,000 worth of milk last year. The milk came from about 40,000 shippers each month.

Most of these big fluid-milk marketing associations developed during the World War. Most of them sell milk at wholesale. What retailing is done by cooperatives, is done in the small cities, for the most part. There are two or three large cities, however, where co-ops carry on a retail business.

There is not much fluid milk marketed cooperatively in the South. But the big fluid-milk marketing associations are now supplying milk to practically all the big eastern cities and to some cities in the Middle West and on the Pacific Coast. Sales last year were bigger than the year before; and the year before, milk co-ops handled $337,000,000 worth of milk. ----- (As if interrupted) What's that? --- "Has that helped the milk business?"

I'd say, it most decidedly has been a big help. (As if interrupted) What? --- "How?" -----

Well, the effect of cooperatives on the fluid-milk business has been to steady production in many cases. That is, the effect has been to bring about a better adjustment between production and market demands. That in turn has stabilized prices.

Cooperative marketing has made the dealers' supply of fluid milk more certain, and has tended to cut down the extent of country from which the city has to draw its milk. That has made possible various economies in handling the milk supply.

Added to that, cooperative associations have made real progress in improving the quality of fluid milk as the consumer gets it. Cooperative associations have also been active in advertising the advantages of milk in the daily diet. In that way, they have increased the use of milk and the demand for milk and milk products. Yes, dairy co-ops have done quite a bit toward improving the dairy business. Much of that improvement has been either directly or indirectly to the advantage of the man who produces the milk on the farm.

The local fluid-milk shipping stations in many instances have been built up around the small cooperative cheese factory or the small cooperative creamery.

As you all know, cooperative creameries have been operating successfully in this country for a long time. The first cooperative creamery in the Middle West was organized in Iowa way back in 1871. In Minnesota, the first cooperative creamery association was formed in 1890. And, more important, it is still running.

But today it is just one of over 600 cooperative creameries in Minnesota. Iowa has 260 now. And Wisconsin some 300. Those creameries are small plants, making from 200,000 to 2,000,000 pounds of butter a year. I'd say the typical creamery in Minnesota manufactures from 300,000 to 400,000 pounds of butter a year.

The very fact that they are small compared with their chief competitors, the centralizer, is largely responsible for their success. The smaller plant located near the dairy farm can and does get its supply of raw cream and milk regularly and often.

Getting the cream and milk regularly and often, those plants can make a superior quality of butter compared with the centralized creameries which receive the cream indirectly.

The three States of Minnesota, Iowa, and Wisconsin are recognized as the chief sources of the supply of high-quality butter. That shows what the cooperative creameries have done for the dairy business.

Of course, farmers have been making big quantities of first-rate butter in their own plants for a quarter of a century or more. Up until a few years ago, however, they had not had much success selling butter direct.

However, in 1921, this group of cooperative creameries in Minnesota organized a marketing association. 450 creameries in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and North

and South Dakota joined that association to sell together. Before that, each of the local creameries was selling butter to one of three markets; either New York, or Chicago, or Philadelphia. Each of those creameries was selling in competition with its neighbor; And often those markets were oversupplied. From those markets jobbers and commission men distributed that butter to the retailers.

Today, those cooperative creameries, through their own organization, are selling butter to more than 100 markets, and to several hundred distributors. Under the old system, the butter was shipped east and then redistributed from the central market. Now much of the butter is distributed directly from the point of origin.

Those 450 Federated creameries have established a trade name which stands for quality. Three years ago only 51 per cent of the butter made by those creameries scored 93 points. In 1927, 72 per cent of the butter of those creameries scored that high.

That gives you some idea of what cooperation can and does do for butter and the dairyman.

Year before last that association handled about 80,000,000 pounds of butter. And taking all the co-op creameries in the country, cooperative associations handled $250,000,000 worth of dairy products. Add to that $33,000,000 worth handled by cooperative cheese factories, and that $337,000,000 worth handled by the milk co-ops, and you have a grand total of $620,000,000 worth of dairy products a year. So you see, the cooperative is cutting quite a big figure in the dairy business.

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ANNOUNCEMENT: This time tomorrow, we will have an expert here to tell us about the place of pooling in a cooperative association. And Tuesday, we will have a discussion of the cooperative marketing of poultry and eggs.

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